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ABSTRACT

A study sponsored by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization had the following objectives: (1) to describe and evaluate the policies, practices, facilities, and methodology of foreign language teaching in the Commonwealth Caribbean, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Suriname, the Netherlands Antilles, and Cuba; (2) to describe and evaluate the external resources in the field of language teaching; (3) to examine the language patterns and attitudes in the different countries; (4) to describe and evaluate current measures for overcoming language barriers (e.g., interpretership and translation services); and (5) to make recommendations for projects to reduce language barriers among the countries. Questionnaires, which are appended, were sent to various agencies, and interviews were also conducted. It is concluded that there exists in the Caribbean an educational infrastructure, a pool of personnel, and a level of consciousness that is sufficient for a successful program to reduce language barriers. Short-term recommendations concern language teaching; medium-term recommendations concern reforms in school systems and the creation of machinery for new functions outside the school systems; and long-term recommendations concern national language planning and policy. Languages of the sub-region are listed for each country. (SW)

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LINGUISTIC DOCUMENTATION FOR THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES : CASES, PROBLEMS, SOLUTIONS

NO. 5

INITIAL SURVEY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING POLICIES, FACILITIES AND METHODOLOGY IN THE CARIBBEAN

prepared by

Denis SOLOMON

FL010258

Note : The views expressed in this document are the responsibility of the author and do not necessarily represent the views of Unesco.

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I

INTRODUCTION

Terms of Reference

This study was originally commissioned by UNESCO in response to a request made by the Trinidad and Tobago National Commission for UNESCO on behalf of the Caribbean Member States represented at the Sixth Regional Conference of UNESCO National Commissions of Latin America and the Caribbean held in Bogotá in July 1976. Since the Caribbean consists of English, Spanish, French and Dutch speaking states, the meeting was aware that special efforts would have to be made to overcome the language barriers if these countries were to establish meaningful co-operation on a sub-regional basis.

The meeting was also aware that the Governments of the Caribbean Member States had recently established, through ECLA, a Caribbean Development Co-operation Committee which would deal with a wide range of developmental problems including matters within the competence of UNESCO. Accordingly, the Caribbean National Commissions for UNESCO pledged their support for all CDCC/UNESCO efforts to achieve sub-regional co-operation. They have demonstrated their support by requesting this survey and by providing the administrative support for it in all those countries of the sub-region where UNESCO National Commissions exist.

The survey has, however, been conducted in consultation with the CDCC Secretariat, which is to present it for consideration by Member States of the CDCC.

The programme request submitted by the Trinidad and Tobago National Commission on behalf of the Caribbean National Commissions for UNESCO proposed that the survey should cover, in all countries of the region, the following areas:

- Foreign language teaching in the public school systems.
- Foreign language teaching in private schools.
- Foreign language teaching in specialized institutions (including instruction in national languages for foreigners).

- Government policy on the future of foreign language teaching.
- Government policy on bilingualism in bilingual countries.
- Foreign language teaching for specific purposes (e.g. interpretership and translation services).
- Teaching methods and materials in use, and research in progress on methodology.
- Arrangements for production of teaching materials.
- Teacher training.
- Actual and projected programmes of student and teacher exchange.
- Scope for professional improvement (conferences, seminars, technical journals, etc.)
- Programmes of linguistics in general, and applied linguistics specifically, at University level.

It further proposed that out of the initial effort should come, in addition to the survey report, at least a census of institutions, teachers and researchers in the field and the beginnings of a regional professional association or associations for foreign language teaching.

The survey, according to the request, was intended to provide a valuable input into the deliberations of the meeting of the Caribbean Development Co-operation Committee (CDCC) scheduled to be held in March 1977 in the Dominican Republic.

In addition it was intended that the survey should provide valuable data for both the Symposium on language-teaching and the ALSED programme provided for in the UNESCO budget for 1977-1978.

The survey was also intended to indicate, if possible, the extent to which the unofficial Creoles spoken in the region could cut across the barriers of official languages and provide a possible means of communication and cultural contact between the peoples of the region.

The creation of the Committee for Development Co-operation in the Caribbean of ECLA, and its adoption of a wide-ranging Constituent Declaration, demonstrated that the Governments of the sub-region recognized the common background and specificity of the Caribbean area, regardless of the linguistic differences inherited from the metropolitan powers which previously dominated their existence. At the same time, Governments have recognized that language

problems will have to be tackled with the utmost urgency in order to create a viable basis for action in other fields.

In 1976, ECLA and UNESCO jointly developed proposals for consideration of the Inter-Agency Co-ordination Meeting on the Work Programme of the CDCC.

Among these proposals was a suggestion that a well-endowed Research Institute for the Removal of Language Barriers should be established, containing a Graduate School of Interpretership and Translation, in conjunction with a series of national language learning centres, benefiting from its development of language-teaching materials and methodology.

A joint ECLA/UNESCO team should be responsible for establishing:

i. A sub-regional project covering Bahamas, Barbados, Cuba, Guyana, Haiti, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Surinam, Trinidad and Tobago, with provisions for other countries in the sub-region to join the project. This sub-regional project would include the Research Institute and the Graduate School, should be conceived as a permanent support for CDCC activities, and should at its very initiation be in a position to service the Committee; and

ii. A series of national projects, each having built into it the features necessary for inter-linking to other similar national projects, and articulating through them a sub-regional network of national language learning centres.

At the Second Session of the CDCC in Santo Domingo in M[illegible] 1977, the programme of activities proposed by the CDCC Secretariat included:

(a) a joint ECLA/UNESCO mission in order to establish with government officials the priority target groups, and also

(b) a meeting of about 20 experts to be convened in order to advise on teaching methods appropriate to the respective target groups.

The joint ECLA/UNESCO programme submitted to this meeting contained the following statement:

"CDCC Mandates

In the Work Programme of the CDCC, reference to technical co-operation among the Caribbean countries is presented as "the need to undertake special measures or programmes to overcome language barriers" with "practical instruction in the English, French and Spanish languages in all member countries".

'This mandate refers to the whole population of the sub-region, but its implementation can only be gradual, and it is necessary to distinguish various target groups and to initiate action as may be appropriate. The following appear to be priority target groups - public servants, staff of inter-governmental organizations, of academic institutions or of private enterprises, specific urban or rural groups such as those linked to the tourism industry, or more generally the school-age population.

'These target groups can in turn be sub-divided in order to design measures more adapted to their respective requirements; for example, public servants may be further classified according to their location in Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Industry and Commerce, Agriculture or Education. In summary, the intention is to approach the teaching of languages more functionally, taking into account that the target groups will be determined in consultation with the governments of the sub-region.

"It is necessary to keep in mind the need for the governments to have at their disposal, as soon as possible, a staff of translators and interpreters to satisfy the urgencies arising from an increase in international relations, commerce and tourism. To give effect to official action by the CDCC in the removal of linguistic barriers, it is necessary to augment the number of persons who speak the official languages of the sub-region, at the same time that the need for using these languages is being stimulated. The implementation of this project will therefore be parallel to the execution of other programmes presented in this document.

"Implementational Approach Proposed

The programme for the Removal of Language Barriers will have specific tasks -

In the short-term:

(a) provision of language courses for specific target groups;

(b) provision of translators and interpreters necessary to service governmental, inter-governmental and international institutions; and

(c) training and re-training of language teachers to service the educational system, and to put into action a self-propelled trend toward multilingualism.

" In the medium-term:

(a) translation services to provide access to and dissemination of documentation and audio-visual materials in the Caribbean languages within the priorities determined by the Work Programme;

(b) research into comparative methods of language-teaching in order to advise governments on curricula and other changes required to produce competence in the second and third languages at various levels of the educational systems;

(c) production of pedagogic materials for the teaching of languages taking into account the official languages and the different "creole languages" in the sub-region;

(d) co-ordinated use of mass media as a vehicle for language teaching; and

(e) development of linguistic research.

'In the long-term:

To help in the development of a manifold Caribbean cultural identity through the stimulation of cultural and personal inter-changes and the communication at all levels between the people of the area.

'UNESCO Mandates

In the Programme and Budget approved at the 19th Session of the General Conference of UNESCO, there is no chapter which fully supports the implementation of the programme for the Removal of Language Barriers. UNESCO is dealing, notwithstanding, through its Division of Structures, Content, Methods and Techniques of Education, with problems raised by the teaching of languages, and foresees the realization during the biennium 1977-1978 of a colloquium on "Language teaching in a pluri-lingual and multi-cultural context".

'UNESCO's participation in the programme for the Removal of Language Barriers, through missions, could be included in the normal activities of the Regional Office for Education, with headquarters in Santiago, Chile, or of the above-mentioned Division of Structures, Content, Methods and Techniques of Education.

"Specific support comprehensive to the programme for the Removal of Language Barriers should be proposed in the 20th General Conference of UNESCO in 1978, for inclusion in the Programme and Budget of the Organization for 1979-1980.

"Action Under Consideration

To initiate the task related to the Removal of Language Barriers, a joint ECLA/UNESCO mission is recommended in order to determine, with governments, their priorities on the matter, the priority target groups and the incentives that can be applied in order to stimulate the study of a second or third language."

The Work Programme approved at the Second Session stated that in an effort to undertake special measures and programmes to overcome language barriers, (a) a joint ECLA/UNESCO mission was proposed in order to establish with Government officials the priority target groups, and also (b) a meeting of experts should be convened in order to advise on teaching methods appropriate to the respective target groups. Special attention was to be given to the need of those countries which currently have no or only limited language-training facilities. Details on these proposals are contained in paper E/CEPAL/CDCC/19, Section II.

The CDCC in its report of the meeting affirmed that the programme for overcoming language barriers should be implemented with special and urgent attention to the needs of those countries within the sub-region which at present have no or very limited related training facilities or none at all.

In the survey being carried out on a country-by-country basis, particular attention should be paid to identifying the target groups, including journalists and other communications specialists, on which the efforts and related activities should be concentrated during the initial stages. To cover the urgent needs of countries lacking training facilities, during a transitional period maximum use should be made of facilities available elsewhere within the sub-region. A further feasibility study on this subject would be undertaken.

In March and July 1977, I signed contracts with UNESCO and ECLA respectively to undertake an "initial survey of Foreign Language Teaching Policies, Facilities and Methodology in the Caribbean" and "to discuss with Government officials priority target groups for the teaching of foreign language, to examine possible incentives suitable for including a self-propelled trend towards language-learning, to evaluate the present situation and advise on possible modifications. The identification of the ad hoc means that exist now for the provision of translation and interpretership services to governments, businesses and educational institutions, with a view to organizing them and standardizing them on a national and sub-regional basis".

A work plan prepared in collaboration with the ECLA Office in Port of Spain was approved by UNESCO, which requested that the report stress, if possible, attitudes to mother tongues in foreign language policies.

This study has, therefore, the following objectives:

i. To describe and evaluate the policies, practices, facilities and methodology of foreign language teaching in the countries of the sub-region, including the teaching of national or official languages to foreigners, by means of a study of the public and private sector, the media and any other relevant institutions;

ii. To describe and evaluate the external resources in the field of language teaching available to countries of the sub-region;

iii. To examine the language patterns existing in the sub-region and the language attitudes and language policies of peoples and governments;

iv. To describe and evaluate the means currently at the disposal of the countries of the sub-region for the overcoming of language barriers, e.g. interpretership and translation services; and

v. To make, where possible, recommendations for short, medium and long-term projects for the reduction of language barriers in the sub-region, bearing in mind the proposals of ECLA, UNESCO, the CDCC and the Caribbean National Commissions for UNESCO.

Method of Work

The questionnaires reproduced at Appendices V and VI were sent in advance, the first to education authorities, institutions and certain selected individuals in all the countries of the sub-region, the second to Chambers of Commerce and to the Caribbean Association of Industry and Commerce for circulation to member firms, and to governments for circulation to their ministries and other agencies in the public sector.

From a base in Trinidad and Tobago, visits were then made to the following countries in the sub-region:

Grenada, St. Lucia, Barbados, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, the Bahamas, Curacao, Guyana and Surinam. Visits were also made to Martinique and Guadeloupe.

The visit to the Bahamas was of little value because of the unavoidable shortness of my stay and because of the imminence of an election which made it difficult for interviews to be arranged. Nevertheless, the persons I did manage to interview there were very helpful, and considerable data was received by correspondence.

The list of people interviewed is at Appendix VII.

I should particularly like to thank Mr. George Cave of the University of Guyana for acting in an extremely energetic manner as agent for the investigation by persuading firms and agencies in the private sector to fill out the questionnaire.

Of the countries not visited, very few did not return the large questionnaire, but in many of the countries visited or not visited return of the short questionnaire (on interpretership and translation) was patchy.

It was unfortunately impossible for me to visit Puerto Rico (although I received a completed questionnaire and helpful correspondence from the Secretariat for Education there). Although Puerto Rico is not a member country of the CDCC, it is a potential source of assistance in language-teaching and an interesting laboratory of language contact and language planning. I have, therefore, included a recommendation (See Chapter VIII) that this study should be completed by an investigation of the language situation in Puerto Rico.

It is also regrettable that I was not able to visit Mexico, which is a member of the Caribbean group of UNESCO National Commissions and which strongly supported the project request. Panama also expressed great interest in the study because of traditional links with the English-speaking Caribbean.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN CARIBBEAN EDUCATION SYSTEMS

In most of the countries of the sub-region, formal language-teaching has had very little effect in reducing barriers to communication in the area. This, of course, is the rule rather than the exception everywhere in the world, and the fact that one or two notable exceptions to it are in fact to be found in the Caribbean is not only an encouragement to educational planning but may well provide certain indications of the forms such planning should take.

The Commonwealth Caribbean

Dr. Clemens Hallman, Language Consultant to the Trinidad and Tobago OAS Technical Assistance project, said in his final report in 1970:

> "Overall, the language instruction in Trinidad and Tobago is quite traditional and geared to tests (GCE), the validity of which is highly questionable for this country. Teachers are using textbooks which emphasise translation, grammar from a deductive and analytical point of view, and reading. The textbooks often contain Spanish of an earlier century and tend to be pedantic, viewed in the light of a modern, contemporary, thriving Spanish language spoken by millions today. Little or no emphasis is placed on the oral aspect of the language, either because of not having an oral emphasis in the text, or because teachers can't afford to "waste time" on conversation because they have to get their students ready for the traditional GCE exams. These exams, by the way, seem to be an enormous obstacle, in fact they appear to be an educational millstone. Naturally, an institution or agency requiring these exams as an entrance requirement or a passport to a job is also at fault and encourages teaching for a test. This is not educationally sound.
>
> "A typical teacher will have his traditional textbook and a blackboard. No visual aids, modern materials, nor electromechanical equipment are available.
>
> "Naturally, there are, happily, noticeable exceptions to the above picture. However, they are only exceptions as the general picture is the one described above. This is generally true at all levels of the educational system. The difference at the post-secondary level is more emphasis on literature, again a questionable objective for future foreign language teachers.

"In several words, the entire profession seems to ignore, for one reason or other, the enormous strides made during the past ten years or so in foreign language.

"Many secondary school teachers with whom the writer discussed methodology expressed a strong desire to change the instruction emphasis to a more modern approach, stressing language as communication. Some are trying to do so; however, they feel as though they must do so in an under-ground fashion lest the parent and the school authorities learn of their "mischief"."

In his report on Jamaica, written in 1971, Dr. Hallman stated:

"Perhaps the single biggest problem concerning the teaching of Spanish in Jamaica lies in the junior secondary school. Not only are there not enough teachers but many, if not a majority, of the Spanish teachers are not adequately prepared in terms of (1) knowledge of Spanish, and (2) knowledge of modern teaching techniques.

"How does one expect to teach Spanish and to develop positive attitudes toward Spanish speaking peoples if the language is not taught?

"In addition to the above weaknesses in the junior secondary school, the teachers seem to be suffering from a lack of support in terms of curriculum guides, planning, instructional material and media.

"One cannot entirely blame, however, the present junior secondary school teachers as they are victims of the present administrative and teacher education system.

"Tied in with the above problems, and perhaps the cause of it to a large extent, is the situation found at the teacher training colleges...

"In addition, once the student enters the college the curriculum followed is on the whole not in keeping with modern pedagogy in terms of language content. There also is a weakness, with the exception of one or two colleges, in terms of incorporating in the curriculum the teaching of modern techniques and methods of teaching a foreign language...

"How then, with such a preparation, are teacher training graduates expected to teach a <u>living</u> language effectively, using modern approaches, in a junior secondary school?"

The same might have been said for all the former British colonies, the Bahamas and Belize.

Since 1971, the situation has altered somewhat, in the following respects:

i. The number of children (though not of adults) in the education system has increased. This has in some cases had a deleterious effect on the quality of the education provided. The most notable case is that of Trinidad and Tobago, where in spite of a large increase in building of secondary schools, delays in construction and inadequate teacher training and curriculum programmes led to a crisis situation in 1976. Approximately 100% of children under 11 are in primary schools, although the rate of overcrowding is 15% and much of the plant is inadequate. But in spite of the increase in secondary school (particularly junior secondary school) building, a "common entrance" examination has to be administered which admits only about half the 11-year olds to junior secondary school. The Draft Education Plan called for 35% of the first batch of graduates of these schools (14-year olds) to find places in either senior secondary or technical schools. At the end of 1975, only one of these schools was completed; but in 1976 it was announced that places would be found not for 35% of the 14-year olds but for 100%; and with the help of a "14+" placement examination they were all (except for an unknown number who dropped out) crammed into largely incomplete and understaffed senior secondary schools and the two existing technical colleges;

ii. Training programmes for language teachers, and their content, have improved. In Trinidad and Tobago the In-Service Diploma programme of the UWI School of Education (for Junior Secondary teachers) has a certain amount of methodological instruction of fluctuating quality; in Jamaica the Spanish Section of the Ministry of Education and the Spanish Teachers' Association struggles valiantly with the help of the OAS to provide teachers' workshops and seminars, and the Jamaica 20 year Education Plan has ambitious plans to "lead Jamaica along the path of becoming a bilingual nation" by teacher training, curriculum development and exchanges with Spanish speaking countries. The UWI, Mona Campus, has plans for a Regional Summer Workshop in Language-teaching. UWI graduates from St. Augustine and Mona with training in applied linguistics and/or language training received in the University's modernized teaching programmes have begun to enter the teaching service. In as small a country as St. Lucia, courses in language teaching methodology (for French, not Spanish) are to be included in the Teachers' Training College curricula from next year. In Grenada, a

teacher-trainer is developing a programme in Spanish for both in-service teachers and training college students, with emphasis on audio lingual methodology.

iii. The quantity of teaching material produced in the area has increased somewhat and their quality has improved. Some curriculum development is going on. University and secondary school teachers in Trinidad and Jamaica have published good texts in Spanish (Vamos Amigos, books with recorded exercises) and French ("O" Level French for West Indian Students). In Jamaica the Ministry of Education and in Barbados the curriculum unit are producing Spanish materials and a Spanish syllabus for Forms 1 to 3, respectively. the UWI School of Education in Barbados has produced some materials. The Schools Broadcasting Service of Radio Belize has developed some Spanish materials. In Guyana, the Curriculum Centre has done the same for the Guyana Multilateral schools. In St. Lucia, one of the better (and more expensive) commercially produced French courses, La France en Direct, by Capelle & Capelle, is used in schools. The Central Curriculum Committee of the Trinidad and Tobago Ministry of Education, made up of Education officials and teachers of all levels, is developing syllabuses for various language programmes;

iv. A considerable quantity of hardware, including language laboratories, has become available, especially in the richer countries. In Jamaica, there are five, in Guyana one, in Barbados,one in existence and another under construction; in St. Lucia, one, and in Trinidad and Tobago all the comprehensive senior secondary schools are to have them, and several of the older grammar schools already do. These figures do not include institutions outside the formal education system , some of which have laboratories also; and the three OAS sponsored language institutes are also so equipped;

v. Language instruction is compulsory, or about to become compulsory, for periods ranging from three to five years of secondary school in most of the English-speaking Caribbean. The most significant exceptions are Barbados, St. Lucia and the Bahamas. In all the countries, the compulsory language is Spanish, except for Antigua, where either French or Spanish must be chosen. In Grenada, Belize and Jamaica, a beginning has been made in the teaching of Spanish in primary school. (In Belize many children are native speakers of Spanish). In many cases, however, the effects of the regulation are nullified by lack of teachers. In Trinidad Spanish is compulsory not only in junior and senior secondary schools but in the specialised craft and pre-technical curricula in senior comprehensive schools; in many cases, however, it cannot be included in the programme. The discrepancy between

the large figures shown in Appendix II as representing students taking compulsory Spanish courses and the actual performance of the schools is illuminated by the fact that there is a very low pass rate in the GCE examination. In 1976 one school entered 455 candidates and obtained one pass; another entered 600 candidates of whom 490 did not appear to sit the examination. The Draft 1968-1983 Education Plan for Trinidad and Tobago originally specified a choice between Spanish and French. Later, Spanish was made compulsory, and French optional. However, no arrangements were in fact made for the teaching of French in Junior Secondary Schools; it has, therefore, not been taught in Senior Secondary Schools either since it would be impossible to prepare students for the GCE O Level in one or two years. The language is therefore taught only in some of the traditional (i.e. age 11-19) schools; in Barbados, a recent Ministerial statement announced that Spanish was to be the second language (presumably this meant the principal foreign language) of Barbados. Nevertheless, French is still the main and best-taught foreign language, and the proposed shift in emphasis has been held up by lack of trained teachers for Spanish;

vi. The number of native-speaking instructors in the education system has not increased. St. Lucia has three or four, which is quite significant considering the size of the country. Belize is a special case, though a greater proportion of English-speaking than Spanish-speaking Belizeans enter the teaching service in the first place. Trinidad and Tobago, a close neighbour of Venezuela, has non, though at the UWI Campus in that country all French and most Spanish classroom instruction is carried out by native speakers. The Ministries of Education have no policy for the recruitment of foreigners for language-teaching, though in Jamaica the OAS advisers to the Ministry are Latin Americans;

vii. The OAS has been instrumental (to varying degrees) in the setting up of Language Institutes in Trinidad and Tobago, Jamaica and Barbados. The stated purposesof the Institutes are, beside foreign language-teaching services to government, business and the public at large, introduction of new methods to the education system; updating of teachers' competence; methodological research; and materials development. The Institute in Trinidad, though it was the first to be set up (in 1974), has done nothing in its four years of existence, and shows no signs of doing anything in the future. It has had three OAS directors, the second

of whom left in disgust, and has so far failed to appoint a local director. The Barbados Institute is in the process of establishment. The Jamaican Institute, called the Language Training Centre, is doing an admirable job, though in the teaching field alone. It is competently and flexibly run, by a Jamaican Director, within the Directorate of Central Training of the Civil Service Ministry. It was started in 1975 with the limited objective of providing language training for foreign service officers as the first step toward becoming a Foreign Service Academy. The OAS contribution was the first Director (the same one who resigned from Trinidad in digust) and the OAS now pays one Counsellor and arranges matching funds from non-governmental agencies. The idea of a Foreign Service Academy is shelved, at least for the present, and the Centre provides a number of full-time and part-time courses in Spanish and French for government agencies and the private sector, as well as English courses for foreign (mostly Cuban) technical assistance personnel. Teaching and evaluation methods are effective and well adapted to needs. In some of the courses the American Foreign Service Institute materials are used. Native-speaking instructors are both hired locally and provided under technical assistance agreements by Cuba and the CAS. Apart from these Institutes, and the Spanish courses run by the Bahamas Hotel Training School, there is no language teaching for special groups; and

viii. In the matter of testing, no progress has been made at all. The British Overseas-GCE Language Examinations were updated in 1972 to comprise written and oral comprehension and expression tests. However, it is impossible to design an effective oral expression test for administration in one country and marking in another country 3000 miles away. Besides, a good school system requires different evaluation methods for different programmes, and in any case an evaluation by periodic testing rather than (or at least in conjunction with) a single final examination.

For the past ten years or more the governments of the English speaking Caribbean have been preparing to replace the GCE with examinations set and marked by a Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC). This body has finally come into existence and is proposing to administer next year examinations in place of the GCE O'level examinations in mathematics and history. There has been some opposition, even among teachers, to the CXC proposal to base part of the assessment in history on course work done and marked in schools. This lack of self-confidence and continuing psychological dependence on outside authorities is a prominent and harmful feature of post-colonial Caribbean society.

It is not known when the CXC will begin examining in language, and when it does, how long it will take each country to adopt the examination.

It is fair to state that throughout the English speaking Caribbean there is slow improvement taking place in language-teaching policy and practice, but not sufficient to make appreciable inroads in the fundamental problems of outmoded objectives, methods and materials, inadequate teacher-training, and shortage of personnel.

At the same time there is a growing concern among authorities and particularly among teachers, and almost excessive consciousness among the latter of their shortcomings; and a willingness to work towards change. There is also, particularly in the larger countries, a considerable and expanding infrastructure capable of sustaining, in a context of imaginative sub-regional co-operation, rapid improvement. In the English speaking countries there was until 1973 no specific teacher-training at University level, except for the 1-year UWI Diploma in Education, which very few teachers possessed. In 1973, the UWI School of Education in Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago initiated an in-service postgraduate Diploma in Education course of which a number of graduates one now teaching in the secondary system. These, as well as B.A. graduates of UWI who have taken applied linguistics courses, have some knowledge of methodology.

The Dominican Republic

In the Dominican Republic, the system is somewhat more flexible, and in addition is in the process of reform. There are three levels of teacher-training - the secondary level normal schools produce primary teachers, awarding the bachillerato. Secondary school teachers obtain the profesorado after 3 years of university study, or the licenciatura, mención inglés (or francès) after 4. In both these programmes there is instruction in linguistics, applied linguistics and teaching methods; in the first within a framework of general education theory and in the second within a framework of literature, history and civilization.

Nevertheless, the secondary school instruction in foreign languages is still, so far, largely traditional. Only 46% of teachers have either the profesorado or licenciatura or a diploma from a private language institute. The Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo has an enrolment of 183 in the licenciatura and 122 in the profesorado, but graduates only one or two students a year because of an open enrolment policy which makes for a low level of student achievement on entry, and a lack of resources which combined with the large enrolment lowers the effectiveness of audio-visual and audio-lingual instruction. The Universidad National Pedro Hernández Ureña has no profesorado or licenciado programmes in language, though it has, for various other careers, instrumental and technical English courses, and French courses for law students. The Universidad Católica Madre y Maestra has considerable resources, but only a small enrolment. It offers in addition a three-year bilingual secretaries' course, comprising 60 credits, over three years, in English (including courses in translation and reading) and commercial subjects. This course has an enrolment of 75 in the three years.

An inter-university programme, sponsored by UNESCO, for co-operation in the formation of secondary school teachers has not yet come to fruition.

Besides the profesorado and licenciado in modern languages, all university careers have compulsory English courses of various lengths and objectives (for example, every student in Madre y Maestra does a 2-year oral and reading course 5 hours a week). The total number of university students following language courses of one kind or another is approximately 9,500.

English is compulsory for all secondary students in the first five years of the old system, while in the new system, either English or French must be taken for four years. 90% of the students now in the reformed system have chosen English.

Private and foreign institutions play a considerable role in the education system. Private primary and secondary schools follow the curricula laid down by the national education authorities. There is also a large number of private language-teaching institutes of varying quality, some of them teaching the language alone, some as part of commercial courses. The four best known have among them about 3000 students of all ages and one, the Instituto de Estudios Superiores, is recognized by the government as a University-level institution.

The US Government-run Instituto Cultural Dominico-Americano has over 5000 students in Santo Domingo and over 800 in Santiago. It conducts the English department of one of the boys' high schools (Colegio Calasans) and in its other classes has 700 students below high school age. There is a faculty of about 100 teachers.

The Alliance Francaise has some 2500 students, 60% of them secondary school children, spread over a large number of levels. The most advanced courses include literature and civilization and lead to the Diplôme Supérieur de Hautes Etudes Francaises, which qualifies the holder for entry to the Sorbonne. The second year of the cycle supéreur of the Sorbonne will be offered.

Haiti

The extent of public education is so restricted in Haiti that it is hardly possible to talk about its quality. Less than 10% of the children of school age are accommodated in the education system. Apart from the lack of resources, the problem that dominates educational planning is that of the language of instruction (see Chapter VII). The content of the curriculum is very classical and modelled on the traditional French system but with few of its innovations in educational techniques. Spanish and English are taught for six and seven years respectively at secondary level, English in all sections but Spanish in the modern language section only. Teacher training is carried out by the Ecole Normale Supérieure which is combined with the Faculty of Arts of the State University. A Centre de Linguistique Appliquée has recently been instituted as part of the University and within the framework of the Ministry of Education.

There are a number of private and Church-administered secondary schools, and in the towns a large number of private adult institutes, including language schools and secretarial schools offering English courses. The only Spanish language school of any size is the Institut Lope de Vega. The Institut Haitiano-Américain teaches English and offers cours de recyclage for English teachers throughout Haiti. These courses are practically mandatory for all teachers.

Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles

The question of Dutch in the Netherlands Antilles and Suriname is considered in Chapter VII. Apart from Dutch, the languages taught in the Netherlands Antilles are English, Spanish, German and French. English or Spanish is taught in the last year of primary school in the Leeward Islands. In the Windwards, French may be taught instead of Spanish. All secondary school students must study one language besides Dutch.

For reasons given in Chapter VII, many Leeward Islanders are fluent in Spanish, practically all can understand it, and most can speak some English. The native language of the Windward Islands is English.

In the Netherlands Antilles, formal training given to language teachers includes training in the language of specialization, though without great emphasis in methodology. 100% of teachers are trained. Methods of instruction vary: in the junior high schools they are traditional but the senior schools use audio-lingual methods and possess language laboratories.

Suriname is much larger than the Netherlands Antilles and its population and their languages are more heterogeneous (see Chapter VII). English is compulsory throughout the secondary school system, and there is a choice of Spanish, French and German during the first three years. However, there are not sufficient secondary schools. The University faculties which exist are branches of a Dutch University, but many texts are in English and the Faculty of Natural Resources prints its calendar in English. Figures are not available for the number of trained teachers in the school system, but the training provided is similar to that in the Dutch Antilles as far as levels of certification are concerned, and the Teachers' Training Institute teaches foreign languages competently. One secondary school, the Teacher Training Institute and the Language Institute possess language laboratories. Senior secondary schools teach both Spanish and English competently; the quality of teaching at the junior secondary school level varies.

The Andres Bello Institute teaches Spanish. The Language Institute, created in 1968, teaches Dutch, Sranan, English, Spanish, Portuguese and French. Enrolments are 26, 38, 87, 64, 16 and 9 students respectively. Most students are civil servants taking courses on Government time. Foreign Embassy staff

study Dutch and foreign business personnel Sranan. All courses aim at oran expression and comprehension. There is no evaluation of performance and no written work. All courses are part-time.

All town-dwellers speak some English, and many people in senior positions in Government and Commerce are practically bilingual.

Cuba

The education system of Cuba is unique in the Caribbean for breadth and boldness of conception, enthusiasm and efficiency of implementation, rapidity of results and, in spite of its rigid framework of political ideology, the flexibility and responsiveness of its administrative apparatus.

Within the system foreign language has, if not a privileged, at least a consciously designed position. This position, along with that of all other subjects, is based, at least as far as availability of courses is concerned, on the varied needs of students in relation to their major disciplines of study or their daily jobs.

The principal characteristics of the Cuban education system, of which the most notable achievement is the almost complete elimination of illiteracy, are:

i. The variety of types of training available from the secondary level onwards, and the number of institutions spanning different levels;

ii. The design of programmes of study to meet the needs of specific branches of technology;

iii. The combination of study with productive work throughout the education system, through "schools in the countryside", agricultural work programmes for urban schools, work programmes for vocational school pupils in institutes deliberately set up in the school's vicinity or even in the school itself, and combination by university students of study with work in the area related to their studies; and

iv. A massive worker (i.e. adult) education programme parallel to the school system and culminating in the same university-level institutions.

The reform of the school system currently in progress involves, (a) along with certain curriculum reforms, the division of the primary level into first cycle (grades 1-4) and basic secondary (grades 5 and 6), though without separation of institutions. The articulation with various specialized branches of study takes place at this point; (b) The creation of vocational schools encompassing grades 7 to 12, i.e. secondary and pre-university levels.

The position of foreign language instruction in the system, both old and new, is complex. In the school system proper, English was taught compulsorily from grades 9 to 13, four hours per week. In the new system, English and Russian are to be taught three hours a week from grades 5 to 8 and two hours a week from grades 9 to 12. In vocational schools, additional elective courses in these languages are available in the various branches of study.

English, Russian, German, French and to a lesser extent Italian, Czech, Chinese and Portuguese are available in the Language Schools which form part of the adult education system. There are twelve of these in the Havana area alone, and others throughout the country. The largest has 2,773 students, and the total enrolment is over 30,000. The schools are designed for workers (in all fields, public administration included) who need foreign language in their jobs or who have chosen foreign language in their programmes of adult education. The Alliance Française must be numbered among these institutions since the students of its French courses are selected by the Ministry of Education, which pays their fees. The José Martí School teaches Spanish to foreigners full-time.

Military schools teach Russian.

Various ministries and other agencies mount their own language courses for their staff, according to the demands of their work.

Teachers for the present grades 7 to 9 are trained at secondary level, those for grades 10 to 12 at pre-university and university level institutes of education. The new system will phase out teacher formation at secondary level, and all teachers will be trained in higher institutions.

The Instituto Superier Pedagógico de Lenguas Modernas Máximo Gorky trains language teachers and has 1616 full and part-time students (the latter being teachers already at work). The Escuela de Lenguas Paul Lafargue is a secondary - level institution.

At the University of Havana, the faculty of Arts teaches English, French, Russian and German, and is divided, in respect of each of the fields, into departments of linguistics and translation-interpretership. The linguistic career emphasizes research. Language is also taught in the department of philology (literature), journalism, scientific information and librarianship.

The Facultad Preparatoria gives 1-year intensive courses, mostly in Russian, to students going to study abroad.

A certain amount of teaching material has been produced, and production is continuing as part of curriculum reform.

Although foreign languages, in terms of curriculum organization, are closely related to courses, the range of institutions is so great that it is impossible to say to what extent the syllabus and materials in each course are adapted to the needs of particular specialities. In general, it is claimed that the objective is communication, and that the emphasis in the early stages is audio-lingual and where possible audio-visual. The trained teachers are very competent, and in any case English has never been an unknown language in Cuba. The adult schools suffer from a heavy enrolment and so cannot make full use of their audio-visual equipment (the Lincoln School of Languages with 2773 students has a laboratory of "only" 75 places, while the Lenin Vocational School, with 4500 students, has ten laboratories of 18 places each. In addition, absenteeism, or rather the rate of absence, is a problem because many adult students have to travel in the course of their work.

University authorities claim that the students emerging from the secondary level have a better base in writing than speaking, and that adults coming from the workers' schools have better control of the

spoken language, and can therefore be selected by an entrance examination. It is fair to deduce, therefore, that those who complete adult language courses for the purposes of more direct use of the language than University study are even more fluent, especially if they are working in a field that demands use of the language every day.

In a recent speech made at the inauguration of a vocational school, the Prime Minister referred to the need for emphasizing the study of foreign languages, especially English and French, for the purpose of providing technical assistance to other countries in Africa and the Caribbean. Whether this means that Russian will be de-emphasized in the secondary schools (it will hardly be possible to make three languages compulsory) and restricted to adult and specialized institutions is not known.

The machinery for language-teaching in the Cuban education system is therefore extensive and varied. Its capacity to contribute to the development of language teaching in the sub-region as a whole will naturally be limited by the heavy burden already borne by many of its components, but this limitation is offset by administrative flexibility and as stated, and to some extent proven, willingness to respond with concrete measures to the need of other countries for assistance. For example, four schools for Mozambican children are being built in the Isle of Pines.

III

ATTITUDES, MOTIVATION, METHODOLOGY

Attitudes and Motivation

Concern with techniques and institutional structures alone, however active it may be, is insufficient to ensure reduction in the linguistic barriers to international communication in the Caribbean or any other part of the world. It is necessary to consider not only how people learn languages, but why.

Motivation in learning, and language-learning particularly, has been tentatively defined in a number of ways. By behavioural psychologists, as behaviour directed to sub-goals as part of a long chain of stimulus-response units beginning with reinforcement of a basic response; psychologically, as the tendency to homeostatic equilibrium, or, contradictorily, as the need for perceptual stimulus. By psychologists of language, it has been defined as a "cognitive drive" 1/, fed by the student's satisfaction at internalising new material, or it is split into "instrumental" and "integrative" motivation, the former implying an urge to learn for purposes of jobs, examination or other external utiliarian requirements, the second for purposes of contact with the people and culture represented by the language studied.

Motivation, instrumental or integrative, is related to attitudes; instrumental motivation is allied with intolerant or indifferent attitudes to both language learning as an activity and the particular language and civilization concerned; integrative motivation with sympathetic attitudes.

Nevertheless, all motivation is fundamentally similar in that it relates to the chance which the activity (in this case language study) affords the learner to alter his relation to his environment in a way which is important to him. That is why motivation to learn one's

first language is so strong as to be taken for granted*/.

Instrumental motivation is considerably more common in language education than integrative motivation[2] and in fact the considerable decline in foreign language study in countries where the most advanced methodology prevails is due to the shortcomings of language programmes in relation to the instrumental expectations of students[3]. This is why language teachers assume instrumental motivation and try to create integrative motivation by satisfying the "cognitive drive" of students by imaginative teaching.

However, the concept of motivation loses its utility in educational planning in situations such as exist in the Caribbean. It is futile to attempt to judge instrumental motivation when career opportunities for language students do not exist, and integrative motivation is a meaningless concept when knowledge of, and contact with, other language communities has always been severely limited, even for the closest of neighbours.

In the present situation, language learning motivation where it exists can even be a force inhibiting rather than fostering development, since languages are not infrequently learnt for the purpose of emigration. Haiti and the Dominican Republic are examples. Such motivation is even consciously exploited, as for example by the Institut Lope de Vega in Haiti, which attracts students partly by means of the prospect of obtaining scholarships and jobs in Spanish-speaking countries.

Empirical evidence of the primacy of the "why" over the "how" in the process of language-learning is not lacking if language learning situations are examined. Quite simply, if people need to learn language, they do, without being taught; but they are often taught without learning. The touts and

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*/ Hence, too, the joke about the little boy who, to the distress of his parents, never uttered a word until he was six years old, and then suddenly burst into vituperative complaint about lumps in his breakfast cereal. When asked why he had never spoken until that moment, he replied that it was because so far everything had been going quite well.

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hustlers of Port-au-Prince learn English, and often other languages as well, more fluently than the French in which their education was conducted. The senior civil servant in Curaçao or Suriname, with a classical education and a technical speciality, speaks good English at need, while his counterpart in the English-speaking Caribbean, or even the recent UWI graduate whose speciality is Spanish or French, is at a loss to communicate the simplest ideas in those languages. The integrative motivation of the Surinamer is implicit in his belief that he is "isolated" by Dutch: another way of stating his desire for integration with neighbouring societies. The citizens of his former parent nation, the Dutch, speak far more English than the British speak any foreign tongue; and the Dutch are far more closely integrated into Europe than the British.

In this regard, it is legitimate to go even further and ask whether the Port-au-Prince tout might not have learned English less well if he had been taught. The answer is that he certainly would, unless he had been taught it in a school for touts, and a well-run one at that.

Does the primacy of the "why" over the "how" mean that concern for teaching methods and materials is futile? Decidedly not. Methodology is a legitimate and necessary concern of the teacher, and its purpose is to maximise the effectiveness of language learning in given situations. But to lower barriers to communication between nations, it is necessary to influence the situations. This means that:

i. Programmes of technical co-operation must be conceived within a context of psychological mobilization for internal and external co-operation in the service of Caribbean unity. The only basis for such mobilization is the prospect of universal participation in the tasks of national and regional development;

ii. Language courses must be closely integrated with, and their methodology adapted to, the national or sub-regional projects and programmes they are supposed to facilitate. This implies great flexibility and variety;

iii. The process of developing language teaching in the service of regionalism must itself be regionalized. That is, there must be a geographical rationalization of research, training, and, where possible, instruction in order to maximise the use of resources within the sub-region and those brought from outside; and

iv. The school system must be the foundation of all this. It must give everyone the linguistic basis that will prevent him having to start from scratch later, but without instilling the inhibitions that will make later, instrumental, learning outside the school more difficult. This means that in the schools the inculcation of enthusiasm and boldness in language learning will be as important as course content. It means that study of a language, as opposed to learning, must come later in the school system, and only for those whose career choice lies in the area of linguistic research, language teaching or philology. It means a strong emphasis on oral competence, an intensification in civilization courses and student exchanges, as well as a policy of obtaining competent native-speaking instructors.

Even in the school system, however, there must be a certain degree of adaptation of language courses to areas of specialization, since the school system must (a) shift the emphasis strongly toward technical and vocational education, (b) integrate work and study by bringing industry, commerce, agriculture and public administration into collaboration in the education process. These are goals proclaimed by both government and opposition political parties in many countries of the sub-region but so far achieved in only one country.

Career guidance and aptitude testing must be a feature of school systems, and these are only effective in a context of full employment.

The present methodological and theoretical thrust of the language teaching profession in the world at large is in keeping with the needs of the sub-region as they have been identified in this report.

The behaviourist-instrumentalist approach of the 1950's, which produced much valuable contrastive data but was limited in its conception of language as conditioned behaviour and by its emphasis on form, has been superseded by a cognitive code-learning model. This model, allied with neurophysiological models of cerebral language representation, particularly a more flexible psychological image of bilingualism, and with concepts of language variation

and language function arising out of socio-linguistic research, has brought about a thrust in the direction of language-teaching with the emphasis on communication, through "functional" and "instrumental" courses - that is, courses designed to give access to information existing in the language concerned or to facilitate the learner in the performance of specific technical and professional tasks. Several courses of this kind have already been published [4] and/or are in use, [5] even in the Caribbean; and work in instrumental and functional language teaching is proceeding [6]. Furthermore, one of the present areas of investigation of linguistics applied to language teaching is that of "inter-language", which it has been [7] claimed may throw light on problems of bilingualism involving creoles.

Methodology

Language teaching methodology is a complex subject. It is possible to describe a particular course as "audio-lingual", "audio-visual", "traditional", etc. but no such succinct description is any guarantee of the effectiveness of the course or its satisfactory adaptation to the needs of learners.

Besides, deeper examination of any language course reveals the truth of the statement of di Pietro and Bosco [8] that any course contains a mixture of methodologies - none is "pure" in terms of its adherence to one single theory of teaching.

Finally, courses designed to embody specific methodological approaches are often used by teachers in quite another way: material meant for audio-lingual or audio-visual presentation may be given to learners for translation, and so forth.

The questions which I attempted to answer to my own satisfaction in the course of this study were, therefore:

i. Are the teachers conscious of using one method rather than another and do they have a reason for using it?;

ii. Are the materials and their use designed for the particular course or programme or consciously chosen as being suitable to it?; and

iii. How good is the product (i.e. the graduates)?

On the basis of the answers to these questions, I have described the overall approach of particular courses or programmes loosely as "traditional", "audio-lingual", etc., and teaching and materials as "adequate", "competent", "untrained", "ill-adapted" and so forth, rather than attempting to analyse in detail their theoretical components, a task that would in any case have been impossible.

IV

THE MEDIA IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE-TEACHING

Utility of the Electronic Media

Both radio and television have advantages and drawbacks as far as their use in language teaching is concerned. Radio is cheaper and programmes easier to produce. Being cheaper, it can be more frequently used (daily lessons in a foreign language are more easily conceivable on radio than on television).

Both require the native language to be used to some degree, but radio more than television. Television, however, enables the written language, if not to be taught, at least to form part of its battery of visual aids; and of course it is television which can exploit the strong visual and motor orientation of the language learner. Conversely, abstract relations not easily reducible to visual imagery are difficult to teach, as is grammar in any appreciable amounts. Television can also give the authentic flavour of the country whose language is being taught, ideally by showing films of people in real situations 9/.

However, if radio or television teaching programmes are to have any effect, they must be very accurately adapted to their audience in terms of the situations, topics and conventions used - a consideration that must add considerably to the cost of their use.

Both media have the great drawback of total lack of feedback, so that if they are to be used as a major instrument in teaching programmes they must be augmented by a great deal of supportive machinery - for example, broadcasts integrated into school programmes, exercises and tests done by correspondence. Broadcasts must also be frequent enough to cover the syllabus in a reasonable period, and it must be possible to repeat the same lesson in different time slots (which may mean in different channels) to accommodate a working population of students: this is what the Open University in Britain does.

It must not, therefore, be imagined that television or even radio can ever be a substitute for a teacher or be used to overcome shortage of personnel: on the contrary, considerably more personnel, and a wide range of skills, are invariably required for their use.

It might well be, therefore, that for all these reasons, the use of the electronic media to teach language would prove too costly and too pedagogically uncertain to be a worthwhile undertaking for countries such as those of the Caribbean sub-region.

It is nevertheless worthwhile to consider whether without too great an expense it might be possible to use radio and television for limited objectives and as supplements to existing language-teaching programmes. The requirements for such use would be:

i. Regionalization of the effort, to eliminate duplication. This would require care in the elaboration of scripts and films so that they would remain equally suitable from one country to another;

ii. Machinery that would bring together the expertise in all the fields necessary - teachers, researchers and media professionals;

iii. Teaching for communication;

iv. A reasonably motivated, preferably adult, audience (all the motivational factors referred to in Chapter III apply here); and

v. Materials, especially television films, which increase motivation by authentic presentation of the culture of the countries whose language is being studied. This is not a contradiction with i. above, but it means there would have to be two different types of material.

Dramatic presentations are the least useful for this latter purpose, since the main characteristic of dramatic dialogue or commentary is its unexpectedness, and its consequent difficulty for those not completely familiar with the language. Strong contextual cues to the general theme and even the meaning of particular passages are essential, and these are best achieved by documentary-style programmes about life in the country in question, with language appropriate to the level of the learner. Such broadcasts might even be successful if injected into the programming of radio and television stations for the benefit of language learners but without being keyed to any language

course or even containing any instructional material such as exercises or drills - merely, perhaps, a certain amount of repetition and moderate speed of delivery (such as is used in some of the Voice of America news commentaries broadcasts in English to Latin America).

In addition, the development of the entire sub-region is going to require wider, and, quite likely, more consciously controlled networks of radio and television communication within the various countries. If the process is to bring results, education must have its share in the use of these networks; language teaching may therefore find its way in at less cost than it would otherwise. The use of earth satellites, such as is contemplated by the University of the West Indies for transmissions among the countries of the English-speaking Caribbean, would facilitate educational broadcasting on the regional scale.

An institution already in existence, however, is the Caribbean Broadcasting Union, which might sponsor the distribution of language teaching programmes, produced in one or two centres in the sub-region, through existing radio and television linkages.

Existing Resources and Programmes

The resources that exist at present in the sub-region are as follows:

In Trinidad and Tobago, St. Lucia, Antigua, Suriname and Guyana, the radio has been or is being sporadically used for teaching Spanish or English, with material prepared by the relevant agency (Schools Broadcasting Service of the Ministry of Education, etc). In Guyana, the Brazilian Embassy runs a course in Portuguese on the radio. In the Dutch Windward Islands, the American educational television programme The Electric Company has been experimentally used as an aid to English teaching. In Belize, the Schools Broadcasting Section of Radio Belize has Spanish teaching broadcasts for primary as well as secondary schools, with both scripts and support material written by a team composed of teachers from the schools.

In Jamaica, the Educational Broadcasting Service of the Ministry of Education has produced since 1964 television programmes for Spanish teaching in schools, together with support material (including tests). The programmes are prepared by the Curriculum Unit. In 1975, radio programmes began to be produced.

These programmes are admitted by the Jamaica education authorities to have had only limited success. At first, they were designed as complementary to the published "Vamos Amigos" text (see Chapter II). Teachers' seminars were held before the series began, but these were "inadequate", and teachers in schools tended to believe that the programmes represented free time for them. In addition, there were frequent breakdown of receivers in schools, and there was a chronic shortage of personnel for the preparation of the programmes. Now, therefore, there is only one series on television, for Grade 7, and a new series on radio - dramatized folk tales in Spanish for Grade 7, designed to awaken the pupils' interest in the language.

In Haiti, Radio Lumière presents orally, two or three half-hours a week, the content of the English courses of the Institut Haitiano-Américain. The English-speaking television channel, limited to Port-au-Prince and, by economic circumstances, to well-to-do viewers, has an English course.

The UNESCO Educational Mission broadcasts some very well-designed programmes for primary schools, the object of which is to achieve the pupils' transition from Creole to oral French. Based on the work in comparative analysis of Dr. Pradel Pompilus [10], and using the vocabulary and syntax of the CREDIF Français Fondamental, the series comprises 50 25-minutes broadcasts, containing dialogues, explanations in Creole, pronounciation and structural exercises. The radio is in this case meant to replace the teacher for the duration of that particular lesson. There are no texts for the learners, but it is recognized that teachers' texts would be a help if there were time and resources to produce them. The main problems have been logistical - programmes ought to be produced two to four months ahead of use, but this has not proved possible.

Three-day teachers' seminars have shown that the programmes are being used, and other evaluations will be carried out later.

Similar programmes for English teaching have been used in Cameroun.

The Cuban Instituto de Superación Educacional (ISE) has from time to time made use of radio and television for superación courses for English teachers. For the public at large, the media are being used for teaching Russian. A Teaching Centre has been set up, to prepare and deal with correspondence material. The course is of three 1-year levels, and is now in its third year. Yearly tests are administered to the students at various language schools, and a Diploma is awarded.

About 7000 students registered initially, and in spite of considerable attrition, several thousand remain. Study groups in factories and other places of work have been formed by students enrolled in these courses. An English course is planned but not yet in effect.

V

PATTERNS OF SUB-REGIONAL CO-OPERATION

Evolution of Caribbean Co-operation

One of the most striking results of the Caribbean's history of colonial domination is the lack of contact between the countries of the region. Every country has always had far stronger ties, usually ties of dependence, with powers external to the Caribbean, first Europe and then the United States of America.

In varying degrees, the countries of the region have suffered from the effects of plantation economies, unfavourable terms of trade, lack of industrialization, and dependence on external investment by North American, European or multinational corporations. Attempts to reduce these effects have been varied; in Martinique, Guadeloupe and Cayenne, political incorporation into the metropole; in the British Commonwealth countries, first of all Commonwealth trading agreements, then a Free Trade Area and finally a Common Market; in Cuba, a socialist revolution.

The CARIFTA - CARICOM experiment is now facing considerable difficulty related to unequal trade balances among the partners, a situation that was inevitable as long as an alliance of partners unequal in resources was able to commit itself only to reducing trade barriers and not to serious rationalization of industrialization. The Cuban revolution has resulted in Cuban dependence on yet another external power, the Soviet Union - a dependence, however, which Cubans would maintain is temporary and different in kind from neo-imperialism.

The major efforts at political and economic co-operation in the post-colonial period took the form of membership of the newly independent countries in the OAS; the CARIFTA - CARICOM initiatives by the British Commonwealth territories and the current attempts to extend CARICOM to include other countries such as Haiti and the Dominican Republic; separate multilateral agreements such as those

between Jamaica, Venezuela and Mexico on the construction of an aluminium smelter or between Trinidad and Tobago, Jamaica, Costa Rica and Mexico for the foundation of the NAMUCAR shipping corporation; membership in regional blocs within world international organizations, the most tangible result of which is the foundation of the CDCC within ECLA; and a variety of bilateral agreements and projects for technical and other co-operation in education, culture, public health, sport, etc.

There are also a number of situations of regular contact such as tourism and seasonal work migration.

The Chart at Appendix III sets out these bilateral contacts, in so far as they cross language boundaries.

Linguistic Barriers to Co-operation

Communication problems arising out of these initiatives take several forms.

At the diplomatic level, the number of conferences held in the sub-region is increasing, as is the number of permanent secretariats of international and regional organizations.

At the Government level, there is an increase in bilateral technical and cultural co-operation projects. Certain ministries and agencies, for instance those dealing with foreign trade, within particular governments are experiencing an increase in the volume of correspondence with countries speaking foreign languages. There is also an increase in routine documentation in foreign languages: invoices, bills of lading, etc.

At the level of bilateral technical co-operation, technicians are travelling in increasing numbers across language boundaries without having any knowledge of the language in which they will have to work.

There is, finally, a probable increase in the volume of foreign-language correspondence of private firms, and of their contacts with people speaking foreign languages. The word "probable" is used because this phase of the present investigation was only partially successful. The questionnaire designed to determine supply and demand for interpretership and translation services in the private sector elicited a very uneven response. Response

from government agencies to the same questionnaire was also poor, but in the case of governments a certain amount of information could be elicited in interviews. Appendix II gives such information as is available.

Responses to Communication Problems

Countries have reacted to this complex of difficulties both by recourse to traditional solutions and by new but extremely ad hoc initiatives. Among traditional solutions is the use of international pools of translators, interpreters and bilingual secretaries or the services of individuals such as school or university teachers or an organization's own employees. For the OAS Foreign Ministers' Conference held in Grenada in April 1977, a staff of two hundred and twenty six people was imported from various OAS offices to service the conference. In the GEPLACEA Conference held in Jamaica, interpreters were brought from Cuba. In the case of documents, in most government agencies those which are in foreign languages are either disregarded, or used directly if the officer dealing with them knows the language concerned, or translated by private arrangements with people inside or outside the agency concerned. A good example of this type of document are the UNESCO publications in Spanish from the regional office in Santiago, Chile, which are used, but not to their full potential, by the Planning Officer in the Ministry of Education in Guyana, who happens to read Spanish.

There is a recent disastrous example of recourse to the most traditional of all methods of overcoming language barriers - sign language [11]. In 1976 the Government of Trinidad and Tobago purchased from Venezuela a motor vessel to use as a ferry between Trinidad and Tobago. The ship broke down on its inaugural run and is still inoperative. A Commission of Enquiry into the purchase reported in 1977 that no one in the Trinidad and Tobago team entrusted with the negotiations could speak, understand or read Spanish, with the result that the ship's log-book could not be examined and the negotiations with the owners' representatives were carried out in sign language.

Non-traditional responses to the problem include language training for technical assistance personnel, the creation of interpretership and translation services, and language training for bilingual secretaries, hotel and airline personnel. The countries where these initiatives are taking place, in varying degrees, are Cuba, Jamaica, Guyana, the Dominican Republic and the Bahamas.

In Cuba, many Ministries and other Agencies have translation sections, and several have their own language training schemes (for example, the Ministry of Overseas Trade and the National Bank); they also make use of the language training facilities of the adult education system. Direct private arrangements are also common. University students destined for study in the USSR are given a year's intensive training in the Facultad Preparatoria (see Chapter II). There is still a considerable excess demand for translation services, particularly for Russian, since the Ministry of Foreign Trade services a Cuban interest (though not necessarily participation) in some 54 COMECON Conferences per year. The Department of Documentation of this Ministry recognizes that the problem of translation is a part of the general problem of documentation and organization of information, since the increased need for communication across language boundaries has been accompanied by an increase in the need for access to information of all types, and therefore for the effective standardization of classification systems. Even in Cuba alone, it is felt, centralization of translation services would obviate a considerable amount of duplication.

A National Conference on Information held in Cuba in 1965 set up a Committee on Translation and Terminology, which found that in spite of the number of language schools the level of services available, particularly in the area of simultaneous translation, was not high. The creation of a small National Enterprise of Translation and Interpretership (ESTI) has not yet corrected this situation. The Committee made a preparatory study for the creation of a national pool of translators, but the intricacy of the pattern of permanent and ad hoc services defeated the Committee's calculations.

ESTI is based on the central office of the Council of Ministers, and its staff is made up of university teachers and others who may be working full or part-time elsewhere as translators.

A meeting of Librarians and Documentalists, sponsored by UNESCO and the CDCC, is to be held in Port of Spain at the end of November 1977. This meeting should be the start of a study of the problem of documentation and information that should include the question of translation.

In Jamaica, the Language Training Centre has successfully organized courses in English for Cuban technical assistance personnel, in Spanish for trainees going to Cuba in various programmes (fishermen, construction brigades) and for hotel trainees. In 1978, there will be a great increase in the second category: 144 Jamaicans destined for training in sport, forestry, fishing and other fields will be taught Spanish. Courses will comprise 800 hours of instruction as well as outside projects in the various fields of activity, and some or all of them may be residential.

A translation unit in the Ministry of External Affairs is planned for 1978. At present, there is one officer working full-time as a translator. The projection is for six people specializing as translators and conference interpreters in Spanish, French, Portuguese, Russian, Chinese and Arabic.

Guyanese trainees going to Cuba under the technical assistance agreement signed in 1975 were first taught Spanish in Cuba, but now a Cuban teacher is preparing 30 trainees in Guyana. This will not satisfy future requirements, since the agreement envisages 80 scholarships per year to train Guyanese in banking, aviation, agriculture, fishing, sugar technology, construction, forestry and medicine. The missions sent to Cuba to lay the groundwork for these programmes encounter little difficulty, but Cuban missions to Guyana give rise to problems since there is a shortage of Spanish interpreters.

The University of Guyana has been called upon at short notice to give English courses to Cuban physicians coming to work in Guyana, but the University's resources are limited and arrangements will soon have to be made to meet the needs for both English and Spanish training arising out of these technical assistance programmes.

In the Dominican Republic a small group of private individuals has formed a translation and interpretership association on a commercial basis. There are so far only two interpreters, who work in Spanish, French and English: Messrs. Luis H. Garcia and Santiago Lamela. In addition, there are 8 to 10 translators, working in Spanish, English, French, German and Portuguese.

The ambition of the association, which as yet has no name, is to offer a complete range of services to international meetings and conferences held in the Dominican Republic, as well as to foreign missions visiting the country: for example, bilingual secretaries and guides. They maintain that this can be done, and at reasonable rates to clients, because they refuse to accept what they call the mystique of the interpreter's profession - the claim that simultaneous interpreters can only work short periods at a time and must be frequently relieved.

Target Groups

The identification of target groups for language teaching programmes, is, of course, not a discrete part of this study, but one of its end products, since it can only be done against the background of information on the directions of sub-regional development. Nevertheless, an important element of the data of this investigation is the view each government has of the target groups to which programmes of language teaching should be directed.

The fact is, however, that officials consulted had quite varied views on the subject. The following were cited as desirable target groups:

Teachers
Businessmen
Secretaries
Middle - and upper-level Civil Servants
Hotel and tourist industry personnel

Certain of the replies were nevertheless informative. The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education of St. Lucia was decisive in his recommendation that secretaries should be considered a key target group because (i) they are a feature of many kinds of activity; (ii) their functions within an organization are varied; and (iii) the purpose of education programmes, as the Permanent Secretary saw it, was to encourage the flexible use of people and to provide them with professional mobility.

An interesting divergence appeared between the attitudes of government officials in the English speaking countries on the one hand and in Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles on the other. The latter, already speaking English and sometimes other foreign languages with considerable competence, were frequently in favour of courses for senior civil servants to enable them to improve the quality of their interventions, delivered in foreign languages, at international conferences. Positively motivated toward language study for practical ends, they had no doubt of the perfectibility of their own skills, whereas the Commonwealth Caribbean civil servants thought not in terms of improving their own language skills but securing such facilities as bilingual secretaries and interpreters.

The following considerations seem to be valid in relation to the question of target groups

i. Specific language teaching programmes <u>per se</u> are not the only, or even perhaps the most important, element in the process of lowering linguistic barriers to communication. To some extent, the lowering of other barriers will not only bring about an increase in foreign language skills without instruction, but will define the areas in which intensification of language instruction will be of maximum assistance to the process;

ii. Courses for specific target groups are therefore not the infrastructure but the superstructure of the system necessary for the reduction of linguistic barriers: the infrastructure is the reform of curricula, methods and objectives in the school system to provide individuals with the basis on which to build language skills necessary later on for specific purposes; the provision of institutions capable of responding flexibly to language teaching needs of different kinds as they arise; and the institution of permanent regional services in the areas of research and documentation, including translation and interpretership;

iii. It is clear from the above that to the extent that target groups are identifiable now, the most important one from the infrastructural point of view is, everywhere, teachers for the schools. Training programmes for language teachers must be given a high priority;

iv. Interpretership and translation is important because for a relatively small investment in time and money it should be possible to train and certify a corps of interpreters and translators which would obviate the present need for relying on outside sources. But, perhaps more important, the creation of such a professional outlet would improve student motivation in the education systems and thereby facilitate the improvement of language teaching in general;

v. Other target groups will be defined by developments in technical co-operation and other areas of contact. To teach language in anticipation of need is futile because the motivational component is lacking and because communicative skills atrophy even if theoretical knowledge does not. The important thing is to give people, in their basic education, a positive attitude to language-learning and basic competence in specific languages that can be reactivated and built upon at need, and to have a set of institutions capable of reacting quickly and flexibly to the needs of Cuban physicians working in Jamaica or Guyanese construction workers going to Cuba. In other words, the widest range of target groups at present identifiable is composed of technical assistance personnel, of both recipient and donor categories; and

vi. It is necessary to make certain that language-teaching efforts should not intensify the brain-drain - that is, they should not be directed towards groups for whom they represent merely an opportunity to emigrate. Much of the work of language teaching institutions in Haiti, both private (such as the Institut Lope de Vega) and public (such as the Institut Haitiano-Américain), and to a lesser extent in the Dominican Republic falls into this category. It would no doubt be true of many English speaking territories were they not English speaking, since the level of migration to North America from there is high.

This last is a strong argument in favour of, first, the integration of language teaching programmes into economic planning designed to create jobs; secondly, the close association of education with productive work; third, the planning of language teaching programmes in such a way as to create employment outlets; and finally, the selection of target groups on the basis of technical assistance projects.

VI

EXTERNAL SOURCES OF ASSISTANCE

The Caribbean sub-region is no more watertight than any other politically-defined group of nations. External presences within the geographical confines of the region cannot be ignored, and individual states have traditional external connections that must be reckoned with.

Elsewhere in this report reference has been made to Puerto Rico, which could not unfortunately be included in the present study but to which the study ought to be extended as soon as possible. In addition, the forces of interest to the sub-region in the area of language teaching are, for English, Spanish and French respectively; (i) the USA; (ii) PILEI (Programa Interamericano de Linguistica y Enseñanza de Idiomas), Venezuela and the OAS; and (iii) France, represented by the Overseas Départements of Martinique and Guadeloupe (French Guyana is negligible in this respect) and by the powerful battery of organizations dedicated to the service of the francophone movement throughout the world.

The United States of America

In Chapter II the operations of the American Institutes in Haiti and the Dominican Republic, where they constitute an appreciable part of the system of education, were described. These and the Voice of America are the two major instruments of the USA for the dissemination of English in the Caribbean. There is no reason why the former, at any rate, cannot be used, as is the Alliance Française in Cuba, directly by the national education authorities to supplement their programmes of adult or secondary school education.

In addition, financial assistance from a variety of US sources has contributed to many projects in the Caribbean in the past. In the area of language teaching, the University of the West Indies campus in Jamaica has just received a new language laboratory from USAID. The previous one was purchased with a Ford Foundation grant.

The Ford Foundation was also responsible for a series of grants to the University as a whole for the development of linguistics teaching and research, administered by the University Senate Sub-Committee for Linguistics and now carried on by the Society for Caribbean Linguistics.

Hispano-American Sources

PILEI is a University-level organization financed largely by Ford Foundation funds which is responsible for a number of programmes of research and teaching in language and linguistics throughout Latin America. Because of a shortage of money, however, its activities have been reduced recently, and its next meeting, to be held in Caracas in 1978, may be its last.

A statement by President Carlos Andrés Pérez of Venezuela announced his intention to "make Spanish the second language of the Caribbean". Indeed, the involvement of Venezuela in language teaching projects in the Caribbean has recently increased. Venezuela undoubtedly has the resources, and has proclaimed the desire, to intervene massively in the development of the sub-region. Venezuela was named the Centre of the OAS Project for teaching of Spanish as a foreign language, and has contributed to the Project through an advanced course for teachers and a number of scholarships. At a seminar on Spanish teaching in the English speaking Caribbean, held in Caracas in March 1977, a number of recommendations [12] were made concerning the establishment of Language Centres, the diffusion of cultural materials, scholarship programmes, teacher training, exchange programmes, curriculum reforms in national education systems, and co-ordination of language projects. A second seminar was proposed for Barbados in 1978.

The Venezuelan Andrés Bello Institute offers Spanish courses in various centres in the sub-region.

The OAS, through its Regional Programme of Educational Development (PREDE) and the Special Multilateral Fund of the Interamerican Council for Education, Science and Culture (FEMCIECC) has carried out, under the Project mentioned above, a series of actions consisting fundamentally of six Spanish language courses, three basic and three advanced. In addition, the OAS is responsible in varying degrees for the establishment of, and assistance in the running of, Language Institutes in Jamaica, Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago (see Chapter II).

Both the original CIECC resolution recommending the establishment of a Centre for Spanish teaching in the Caribbean and in the Caracas Seminar the importance of a similar centre for English was recognized.

The Venezuela-OAS projects, certainly as far as Spanish is concerned, are the externally-inspired initiatives in which the largest number of countries in the sub-region are already involved. It would, therefore, seem essential to take account of them in any further decisions on the question of language teaching in the sub-region and to avoid duplication of effort. This necessarily relates particularly to the OAS "master plan" for Spanish teaching; the proposed functions of Language Centres; exchange programmes; recommendations for curriculum planning; the role of the Educational Technological Centre in Venezuela in preparation and diffusion of materials; the planning of research; the functions of the OAS/PREDE Area Co-ordinator; and the prospect of diffusion of television and radio programmes.

France and the Francophone World

French speaking elites around the world have perceived that the decline in the use of French for interstate relations and for national development is a threat to their interests. Consequently, they have begun a transnational multilateral movement to improve the status of French, to build interlocking and interdependent ties among themselves for mutual assistance and to create a new actor in world policies free from control by any single country.

Over one hundred francophone organizations - societies, clubs, national, international, governmental and non-governmental bodies - work in a co-ordinated way to replace English words with French neologisms in areas such as space technology and mass communications. They provide aid to improve the teaching of French; and in a less co-ordinated way they try to provide exclusive channels for the transmission of scientific, economic, political, and artistic information.

Several of the organizations comprising this francophone movement are relevant to the Caribbean sub-region: AUPELF (Association des Universités Partiellement ou Entièrement de Langue Française) has associate members neither totally or partially French speaking, among them some Caribbean Universities. It also has a Latin American Committee whose Caribbean representative is a teacher at the University of the West Indies. AUPELF has produced considerable literature on the teaching of French for functional and instrumental purposes.

The Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Français (FIPF) has member units in the Caribbean, and the ACCT or AGECOP (Agence de Coöpération Culturelle et Technique) is an association of States of which many Third World countries, including Haiti, are members. The ACCT is well endowed financially, and sponsored a Colloquium on Applied linguistics in the Caribbean held in Haiti in July 1975. It has also sponsored the production of Creole illustrated readers. Although these were somewhat criticised by Caribbean scholars for a certain Eurocentricity of outlook, these scholars recognize the ACCT as a potential source of assistance for a variety of regional cultural projects.

The role of the Alliance Française in the framework of language teaching in the sub-region has already been described (Chapter II). The Direction Générale de Relations Culturelles, Scientifiques et Techniques of the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs provides French teachers to Caribbean Universities.

Although the present condition of the French <u>dèpartements</u> in the Caribbean is that of political integration in the metropole, it is not inconceivable that in the long run they may cease to be so integrated and it is in any case undeniable that they have a Caribbean character unrelated to their political status. Furthermore, there are organizations and groups in these territories whose life and activities have always been dedicated to cultural regionalism - for example, the Centre d'Etudes Régionales Antilles - Guyane (CERAG) and its current President, Mr. Jean Rosaz.

Martinique and Guadeloupe play a considerable role in Creole studies and as centres for the diffusion of French studies in the Caribbean. The Groupe d'Etudes et de Recherches de la Créolophonie at the Centre Universitaire Antilles - Guyane (CUAG) does research on Creole and publishes two journals on the subject. The Latin American Committee of AUPELF has proposed that the

Centre International d'Etudes Francaises should be a "lieu privilégié" for the formation of Latin American teachers of French. The Section de Coopération Franco-Caraibe of the Guadeloupe Prefecture provides funds for various educational aid projects in Dominica and St. Lucia, including a small number of long-term scholarships in French studies. The French Ministry of Foreign Affairs runs an annual four-week course in Guadeloupe for 80 French teachers from the rest of the Caribbean.

VII

NATIONAL LANGUAGE POLICY AND PLANNING

Factors in Language Planning Problems

The problems of national language policy may be reduced, in all cases, to the following:

i. What shall be the official language or languages of the country?;

ii. What shall be the language of instruction in the education system?;

iii. What status shall be given to minority languages in the education system and other spheres?; and

iv. What other languages shall be taught or otherwise encouraged and to what degree (e.g. as second language, as foreign language, etc.)?.

These questions must be answered in the context of the following additional questions:

i. What are the patterns of language use in the country (i.e. what languages are spoken where, by how many people and in what social contexts; what are the extent and types of bi-and multi-lingualism, etc.)?; and

ii. What conflicts between language communities exists, or might exist as a result of policy choices?.

Intra-national conflicts among language communities do not necessarily have a direct bearing on this report, which relates to foreign language-teaching in the context of removal of language barriers between countries of the sub-region.

However, to the extent that problems of national language policy exist, whether or not they contain the seeds of intra-national conflict, they have an indirect bearing on the problems of communication among countries of the sub-region and between them and the world at large.

The problems of national language policy, considerable as they are in some countries of the sub-region, are by and large unlikely to be aggravated by intra-national conflict among language communities. But there are exceptions.

Linguistic pluralism seems, in general, to manifest divisive effects at transitional stages of economic and political evolution, and in circumstances where there is a dominant group using a dominant language.

Observation of specific situations, however, seems to indicate that some or all of the following additional factors must be present.

i. The dominant group must be either the majority (e.g. the English speakers in Canada) or their language must be one of several, not merely two, languages in the country (e.g. Hindi in India);

ii. A large number of the speakers of the subordinate language must, as well as speaking it, have favourable attitudes toward it or be capable of being persuaded to such attitudes. In Quebec, for example, in spite of a certain degree of defeatist psychology among French speakers 14/(a paradox present in many situations of social inequality), French per se is universally recognized as a world language of science and culture;

iii. In the community speaking the subordinate language, there must be militant group consciousness for other than linguistic reasons (as in the case of Catalan, Welsh, Basque). This is particularly the case when condition (i) does not apply - i.e. the speakers of the dominant language are not much more numerous than the others (e.g. Belgium); and

iv. A further condition, related to, indeed implied in, the others is that the subordinate language must be clearly perceived by its speakers to exist and to be different from the dominant language.

These conditions apply, to a limited extent, in some of the countries of the sub-region. In the Spanish speaking countries they do not apply at all. In Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados, and those English speaking Windward and Leeward Islands where there is no French-lexicon creole, the existence of a vernacular that can be clearly labelled as a creole is doubtful; there is a wide spectrum of varieties between the basilect and the standard; and mutual intelligibility among speakers of all language varieties exists. In these countries, as even in Jamaica where the existence of a basilectal creole is more clearly established, language loyalty among speakers of the vernacular is slight to non-existent (indeed, there is a generally negative attitude by creole speakers to their own dialect, inspite of recent growth of nationalist

feeling)[15]. Far from giving rise to conflicts, it constitutes an educational problem partly <u>because</u> speakers in the "interaction area" think they are speaking the standard [16]. These include many teachers.

Not only are the dialects of these countries hardly recognized as such by their own speakers (considerable as their structural divergences from standard English are) but (with all honour to Miss Louise Bennett) there is little or no vernacular literature, and no writing system other than standard English orthography.

This does not mean, let me repeat, that no educational problem arises out of the existence of these vernaculars: There is a considerable problem, and constant attempts are being made to solve it. However, it will in no case lead to any decisions that will retard the learning of English or the acceptance of English as the official and national language; and any modifications to the language of instruction in schools will affect foreign language-learning only to the extent that it improves all learning.

The same applies to Guyana as to the other English speaking countries. Its population of some 40,000 Amerindians, divided into nine tribes speaking Arawak and Carib dialects, might in years to come constitute a linguistic pressure group or groups but at present are far from doing so. The political organization of the Arawaks is minimal and dependent on the central government; the other tribes are sufficiently mobile in their settlements to migrate freely across the Venezuelan and Brazilian borders when they feel their life-style threatened by such projects as hydro-electric plants.

The countries where divisive potential, however slight, exists are, in ascending order of gravity, the "English speaking" countries with a French Creole vernacular (St. Lucia, Dominica and to a lesser extent Grenada); the Netherlands Windward Islands; Haiti; the Netherlands Leeward Islands (Curacao, Aruba and Bonaire); Suriname and Belize.

The Creolophone Commonwealth

In the Dutch Windward Islands the vernacular is English, and independence, if it comes separately to this group, will probably confirm English as the official language. If all the Netherlands Antilles become independent as a unit, there is potential for conflict in the fact that for Windward Islanders all schooling above junior secondary level must be obtained in Curaçao, where it is now in Dutch and will eventually be in Papiamentu.

In St. Lucia the percentage of people monolingual in French Creole was put at about 40 by the 1946 census; all others speak both French creole and either local standard English or a variety of the English-based vernacular. In Grenada the percentage of French Creole speakers is uncertain but much smaller, and there is probably no significant French Creole monolingualism. In Dominica the 1946 census gives the proportion of monolingual French creole speakers as 40 per cent. In none of these countries, however, is there militant language loyalty. The advisability of widening and legalising the unofficial use of French Creole as an instructional medium in schools is objectively explored, but there is no movement for granting any sort of official status to it. No one sees much incongruity in a situation where a court case is heard in English before a bilingual magistrate, bilingual attorneys, bilingual police, a monolingual creole speaking defendant and a Creole-English interpreter.

The existence of the French Creole vernacular has in fact the effect of orienting the population psychologically towards French as a foreign language, because of contacts with the neighbouring French Creole speaking Départements of Martinique and Guadeloupe. While the functional specialization of French Creole will prevent its decease for a long time to come, its speakers do not accord it high prestige in their concept of the national linguistic repertoire and are reconciled to the necessity for English as a vehicle of social mobility.

Belize

In Belize, Spanish is spoken as a first language by about 30 per cent of the population, and indigenous languages (Carib and the three Mayan dialects of Kekchi, Mopan and Yucatecan) by about 18 per cent or 5,000 people. There is also a widely-used English-based Creole vernacular.

Patterns of language use are complex and somewhat disputed, so it is impossible to say how many Spanish speakers are monolingual (the percentage is probably mainly a function of age). However, there are factors which indicate the possibility of an increase in linguistic minority consciousness: geographical concentration near the Mexican and Guatemalan borders; considerable freedom of contacts across the borders; exposure to foreign radio broadcasts in Spanish; the importance of Spanish as a Central American and hemispheric language. These factors are cited by Waddell [17] as evidence that Spanish will eventually supplant English in the country. The counter-arguments of Allsopp [18] (that an independent Belizean identity within the Central American community of nations will be strengthened by English; that Belize looks to the USA and CARICOM for economic co-operation; that more English than Spanish speakers enter the teaching service) are cogent but at the same time underline the possibility of discontent arising among the Spanish speaking communities. The problem in its educational implications is recognized by Belizean education authorities, and schools, even primary schools, are being encouraged to teach Spanish as a second (as opposed to a foreign) language. In some schools those teachers who do have Spanish (or Mayan or Carib) will use it as the language of instruction, but in general the education system operates on the assumption that the school population is English speaking.

On the basis of comparison with other countries, as analysed by such scholars as Inglehart and Woodward, this is a suitable framework for the growth of linguistic conflict - the strains induced by a transitional state of political and economic development creating among minority groups discontents which are then hung on the peg of language discrimination, especially if language conflicts are encouraged by political leaders to promote special interests. In the case of Belize, one must add the possible loyalty conflicts that might be stimulated by Guatemalan irredentism.

The cures for such a situation are, supposedly, widespread bilingualism, equality of status for both (or all - e.g. Switzerland) language groups, (even in cases where the minority is small - e.g.

Swedish Finland) and equality of upward mobility as between members of different language groups. These are conditions which imply a highly developed economy and a powerful education system.

Although CARICOM is supposed to become, and other regional co-operative groupings (notably the CDCC) are, multilingual rather than English speaking, Belize has for the present directed her policies of external co-operation toward the English speaking Caribbean. However, it is by and large true that it is the more favoured elements within a country that tend to support supra-national ventures, and underprivileged minorities that oppose them.

Therefore, since prevention is better than cure, it would be advisable for the Government of Belize to consider the possibility of making Spanish the language of education in Spanish speaking areas, and even the possibility of making Spanish an official language alongside English. Even the first of these is a difficult task for a country with meagre resources, and such a recommendation by UNESCO and/or the CDCC should be backed with proposals for assistance. However, the situation is by no means hopeless, and some of the conditions laid down by Carrington [19] for use of a minority language as a medium of instruction (structural difference from the official language; geographical concentration versus geographical dispersion of speakers) are clearly present.

Haiti

Haiti is the most typical example in the Caribbean of a diglossic situation - a large unschooled majority speaking only Creole, and a small literate élite of under 10 per cent of the population speaking French, to which great prestige is attached, but nevertheless using Creole for all functions to which it is appropriate.

This situation is not one which tends to language-group conflict, but rather one which, when combined with the paucity of resources of the Haitian government, has an extremely deleterious effect on education.

The scornful attitudes of the élite toward the vernacular, characteristic of a diglossic situation as described in 1959 by Ferguson [20], have been considerably modified. Although there is still emotional hostility toward

Creole, it is no longer true to say, as Ferguson could in 1959, that "educated speakers of Haitian creole frequently deny its existence". Haitian intellectuals in particular are aware of the value and importance of creole, and its recognition by the government is a part of the black, populist orientation imposed on the Haitian régime by President Duvalier père. About eight years ago a decree was issued permitting the use of Creole in Parliament, though prejudices are still strong enough to have prevented its use so far. The Ministry of Education is favourable to Creolist thinking though it fears a ghettoization of Creole speakers might result from the use of Creole in the schools.

The French Creole debate in Haiti is, therefore, though heated, conducted on reasonably objective lines, and the valid, rather than the invalid, attitudes cited by Ferguson [20] as characterising diglossic situations prevail within it. The two viewpoints may be roughly characterised as the window-on-the-world theory and the national consciousness theory. The first, while recognising the power of Creole to preserve the popular genius of the nation, claims that it condemns its speakers to social inferiority, and emphasizes the need for the country to link itself to a wide and powerful world community. The second view (which probably has somewhat less support) is that the education of an entire country must be based on literacy in the national language.

Allied to this dispute is the problem of the orthography to be used for Creole: whether it should be "phonetic" (actually phonemic) or a slightly adapted form of French spelling. The former, it is argued, makes for quicker learning, the latter for an easier transition to French.

My view is that Haiti should adopt the policy of conducting education in a national language adopted by so many countries which have opted for the reinforcement of a national identity at the (supposed) expense of a window-on-the-world: Tanzania, Malaysia, the Philippines. The Conference of African Ministries of Education held in Lagos in 1976 passed resolutions in favour of the safeguarding and

promotion of national languages; the Yaoundé Conference on Promotion of National Languages held in December 1976, sponsored by the Agence de Co-operation Culturelle et Technique (the most powerful arm, incidentally, of the international movement for the promotion of French) made a long series of recommendations to member states, among them:

> "(a) De mettre en place là où elle n'existe pas, une institution nationale pouvant aider les Etats à choisir une (des) langue(s) nationale(s) pour les besoins de la scolarisation et de l'alphabétisation des adultes;
>
> (b) D'utiliser progressivement les langues nationales dans l'enseignement;
>
> (c) D'encourager l'étude et la description des langues nationales dans les institutions spécialisées; and
>
> (d) De briser les hésitations et les complexes des masses vis-à-vis des langues nationales par de vastes campagnes d'information, de sensibilisation et de mobilisation dans le cadre d'une politique de "changement des mentalités"."

In fact, in Haiti itself a small study of bilingual education at primary level carried out by the Centre Haitien d'Investigation en Sciences Sociales (CHISS) indicated that an experimental group of children taught in Creole showed results superior to those of two control groups (taught in French) in reading, fluency of speaking, social adaptation, calculation and mathematical reasoning.

There are many reasons why Haiti should adopt this policy:

i. The most important is that the window-on-the-world theory is quite probably an illusion, and literacy in French is an impossible goal. In the words of Dejean 23/

> "... les conditions d'apprentissage reel, effectif, du français par les masses haitiennes ne sont pas réalisables dans un proche avenir.
>
> "Ce qui est impossible ... c'est d'instruire tout un peuple dans une langue autre que la sienne."

The excellent radio programmes for French teaching developed by the UNESCO education mission in Haiti can do nothing to alter this situation;

ii. French is in any case not as wide a window-on-the-world, for Haiti, as its advocates think. In terms of the sub-region, Haiti and the French départements are the only countries where French is spoken; in sub-regional and hemispheric terms, it is, except for Dutch, the least important European language;

iii. This is borne out by the fact that those Haitians who learn languages outside the school, learn not French but English, Spanish or even other tongues. Hotel personnel in Port-au-Prince speak English; the young freelance "guides" who mob the tourists speak English, Spanish, even sometimes German and/or Italian; migrant Haitiancane-cutters in the Dominican Republic learn Spanish; there are 600,000 Haitians in the USA, many of whom spend their holidays at home. The bolète (lottery) is based on the lottery results announced in Spanish on the Santo Domingo radio. In the words of Dr. Pradel Poppilus, the noted Haitian linguist, "facts militate against French". Pompilus favours Creole as the language of instruction in the first 2 years of school "on condition that it should be an opening to other cultures, not necessarily to French culture";

iv. Although there is still reluctance in Haiti itself to accord Creole the status of a language, Haiti is favoured above other countries which have opted for promoting national languages (Malaysia, Tanzania, the Philippines, the USSR) in that Creole is the only national language;

v. Once Haitians are literate in Creole, other languages, including and perhaps especially French should be relatively easy for them to learn; and

vi. In the process of alphabetisation in Creole Haiti would become the centre of assistance to other countries of the sub-region in the preservation and diffusion of Creole cultural forms and in the investigation of educational problems related to Creole.

In the question of the orthography, I support the use of a phonemic orthography. One has only to compare the ease of alphabetisation in languages with a near-phonemic writing system (Spanish, Italian, Hungrian with the high rate of illiteracy among primary and even secondary school leavers in Britain and the USA. The transition to French might be more easily accomplished by the development of a transitional orthography analogous to the British Initial Teaching Alphabet.

A more important problem than that of the orthography is that of standardization for the purpose of teaching. Although there is in Haiti no such continuum of varieties from basilectal Creole to French as gives rise, in Jamaica, to problem both of standardization and orthography, there is variation in Haitian creole along geographic, stylistic and socio-economic dimensions.

Though perfectly adequate transcriptions (notably the ONEC transcription) exist, the writing question is not entirely without problems. Enclitic and proclitic verbal particles and pronouns, like similar forms in all languages, suffer reduction in speech of conversational speed:

mwẽ te ale becomes m t ale
yò ap mãže becomes y ap mãže

Phonological oppositions (e.g. front rounded versus front unrounded vowels) appear in some varieties but not in others.

But as Valdman[24] points out, it is essential to appreciate the difference between transcription and orthography. The first must render utterances in one-to-one phoneme-symbol correspondence, and will therefore vary as dialect varies; the latter must map underlying forms on to surface forms. It is perfectly possible to find an orthography that does this. For example, in the case of morphological condensation cited above, it would simply ignore the enclitic and proclitic alternates and record the citation forms, just as in French je ne sais pas is not written ʃ sepa; in the case of dialectal variation it would provide sufficient oppositions to symbolize the underlying form, so that a speaker who says plim and one who says plym could both be taught to spell it with the rounded vowel (just as Americans who do not distinguish merry, marry and Mary in speech are nevertheless taught to distinguish them in writing) but neither would be burdened with the redundancies of a French etymological spelling.

A greater problem than that of the orthography is that of the normalization of the lexicon and grammar - where to draw the line between enrichment of the basilect from external sources (usually French in Haiti but English in St. Lucia and Dominica) and insertion of longer segments of non-Creole speech - i.e. code switching. Bailey[25] claims that even in

Jamaican any Creolist can identify any stretch of speech immediately as Creole or not; other linguists doubt this. The work of standardization for educational purposes, though perfectly feasible, is a continuing and expert task, for which a permanent institute of Creole studies must be created.

It seems clear that Haiti must be the main centre of investigation and diffusion of creole studies, primarily in the context of educational planning, but also in the area of Afro-Caribbean culture, for the entire Caribbean, particularly for those countries where French Creole exists, and which will undoubtedly benefit from Haitian solutions to problems of alphabetisation and teaching in general.

Perhaps based on the existing Centre de Linguistique Appliquée and the ONAAC, such an Institute should be regional and autonomous, with support from the Government, international organizations, the University and business. Its tasks would be:

> Research into Creole Language and Culture. Standardization and the compiling of word-lists, manuals and dictionaries. Research into problems of bilingual education in a Creole society. Development of teaching materials and tests. Curriculum development. Integration of efforts of other organizations in teacher-training. Collection and storage of information on Creole and related studies from other parts of the world, and provision of library facilities. Diffusion of research findings, materials, etc. throughout the region.

The Regional Institute should be governed by an Advisory Board comprising representatives from Universities, Education Ministries and other relevant institutions in the sub-region.

Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles

The Netherlands Antilles and the Republic of Suriname are best discussed together, for purposes of brevity. In all of them the official language is Dutch, and in all, there is a quite different vernacular language or languages. In the Windward Islands it is English or a Creolised variety of English; in the Leeward Islands

it is Papiamentu; In Suriname the most widespread language is the English-based creole Sranan, and in the interior Saramaccan and Djuka, Portuguese and English-derived creoles respectively, are spoken.

The percentage distribution of first languages is as follows:

	Windward	Leeward	Suriname
Dutch			1.5
English	100		
Papiamentu		100	
Sranan			38
Saramaccan & other (Creole)			10.5
Other (Asian)			50

But Sranan is probably spoken by 75 - 80 per cent of the population altogether.

The percentage of people who speak Dutch natively in the Netherlands Antilles is not known, but the 1976 UNESCO Education Report says that "it is probably a fair estimate that in the Leeward Islands 80 per cent of children speak Papiamentu only" at kindergarten age.

In addition to the problems evident in these figures, all the islands share the difficulty that Dutch is not an important world language. The feeling of being "isolated" by Dutch is frequently expressed by educated people in Suriname and the Leeward Islands. There is in these two countries, therefore, a case for the replacement of the official language by another language which is not the vernacular.

In the case of the Leeward Islands there is probably no necessity for this. Papiamentu will certainly become the official language after independence, and bilingualism in Papiamentu and Spanish should be easily achievable, because of contacts, direct and through radio, with Venezuela, as well as the close relationship of the languages and widespread teaching in the schools of Spanish as a foreign language.

Preparations for the transition to Papiamentu are, if not far advanced, at least on the way. A body to supervise and facilitate the transition (The Taaleninstituut) has been set up in Aruba; Papiamentu is experimentally used as the language of instruction in kindergarten and grades 1 and 2, and there is a small amount of teaching material in that language being prepared. Papiamentu newspapers have existed for some time and Papiamentu is used in Parliament and on all official occasions.

But there is still the problem of higher education, and here the substitution of Spanish for Dutch would be very difficult. The UNESCO Report [26] says:

> "If it were decided to introduce Papiamentu in the primary school as the language of instruction, Antillian children would have the advantage of being able to learn in the language they speak and which they use in their daily lives. It would, furthermore, help to preserve the cultural identity of these children, and give them a more equal chance in continuing their studies.
>
> "This is equally valid for children in the Windward Islands, whose mother tongue is English. They should be allowed to follow their education in English, and unlike Papiamentu this should not create any problem.
>
> "A related issue is the choice of a language for post primary general and technical education. The use of Papiamentu is restricted to a small geographical area, and it does not lend itself to the teaching of technical or scientific subjects, so that it will be necessary to adopt a modern language of wide communication. It seems that a choice will have to be made amongst three languages, namely Dutch, English and Spanish.
>
> "Dutch has the advantage of being known. It has been the official language since 1818, it has the possibility of transmitting technical and scientific know-how, it occupies a privileged position in the political and administrative life of the country, and last but not least all teachers have been trained to teach in that language. But as it is not spoken in other parts of the Caribbean, it would not be use for communication within the region where the two languages most widely spoken are English and Spanish. English has the advantage of already being the language of a minority, namely the population of the Windward Islands, and is also economically important in connection with the oil industry and tourism (90 per cent of the tourist come from North America). Spanish has the

advantage of being easy to learn by those who already know Papiamentu, since the two languages are very close - in fact, so close that some advocates of Papiamentu fear their language would not survive very long if Spanish were chosen as the second language. A choice between the three languages evidently falls outside the scope of the present Report, because it will to a large extent be determined by cultural, economic and political factors, but in taking the decision the Government will no doubt also wish to consider its educational implications. In fact, whatever language is chosen will no doubt have to be taught, at least as a foreign language, in the primary schools.

"The use of one language as the medium of instruction in the primary school, coupled with need to use another language for subsequent levels of education as well as for official communications would probably involve lengthening the period of basic education. Even if a good deal of time is set aside for learning the second language in the primary school as a foreign language it is unlikely that children will, in the course of 6 years, acquire a degree of proficiency that would enable them to follow instruction in that language or, in the case of school leavers, to use it effectively as a language of communication. That is to say, all children would need to continue education after the primary school, if only for the study and the practice of the second language.

"However, this would not pose much of a problem in the Netherlands Antilles because most children stay at school in any case till about age fifteen. In 1972, 89 per cent of the thirteen year olds, 85 per cent of the fourteen year olds, 80 per cent of the fifteen year olds were attending one type of school or another, and today these percentages are probably even higher. It would, therefore, be quite feasible to provide 9 years of education for all children, 6 years in the mother tongue and 3 years in the second language"

There is also the fact that university education in the three areas is limited to the Faculties of Law and Medicine in Suriname which are affiliated to the Dutch University system.

In Suriname the problem is much greater for several reasons:

i. The number of languages;

ii. The size of the country;

iii. Although in the Leeward Islands the vernacular has much greater prestige than in Suriname, where attitudes are unfavourable, Dutch is spoken less well, and by proportionately fewer people, in Suriname than in the Leeward Islands; and

iv. Sranan has all the drawbacks of not being a world language, of dialect variation, of orthography, that other Creoles have, and could not therefore become official, although attitudes toward Sranan have become much more favourable in the last 20 years and there is considerable Sranan literary output. In the words of Eva Essed 27/:

"Around 1960 things looked very well for Sranan. The language got official support: Parliament approved of the second stanza of the National Anthem in Sranan, an official provisional spelling was introduced (1960) and a semi-official Word-list published (1961).

"But around 1962 all official interest in Sranan stopped and it has not been resumed since. To understand why, we have to look into the complicated ethno-political constellation of Suriname.

"At this moment about 40% of the inhabitants are from African or mixed origin (Creoles), another 40% are Indians and about 15% Indonesians. According to the population survey of 1950 about 90% of all grown up Surinamers understood Sranan, about 50% (now probably more) Dutch.

"As in Guyana and Trinidad there is a certain competition between the two largest groups, and although the groups usually are on more or less friendly terms, racial tensions exist and can be exploited.

"In 1958 the largest Creole party and at that time the only Indian party were governing together. They introduced new national symbols (flag, coat of arms, anthem) and they were striving for independence. Some of the Indians became uneasy and were afraid of Creole dominance. The leader of the Indian party, Mr. Lachmon, who already had been more or less reluctant, had to compete with a rival who accused him of selling out to the Creoles. As one of the instances of selling out the acceptance of Sranan in the national anthem was mentioned, at which

occasion Mr. Lachmon had declared in Parliament that 99% of his people understood Sranan and that he considered the Sranan text as an important element for the fraternisation.

"Afraid to lose his followers, Mr. Lachmon dissociated himself completely from the Independence movement and the Creole party, afraid to lose their Indian partner, no longer supported any Sranan language program.

"The elections of 1973 brought Suriname a government in which no Indian parties were represented. Independence was declared in November 1975, but although the prestige of Sranan had been growing and is boosted by radio and television programs and it is very often used for advertising, officially nothing has changed.

"What is the situation at this moment and what may be the future of Sranan?

"During the last twenty years the un-official status changed dramatically.

"The language is so much alive that many new words are made e.g. "oposaka" (up down) for elevator, "isrifowroe" (iron bird) for aeroplane, "faja brookoe" for hot pants. As said before, it is used more and more on radio and television and in politics, but there is no language policy.

"The provisional spelling needs a revision, but the Minister of Education who very often uses Sranan himself does not install a spelling commission.

"In my opinion it is a great pity that the possible function is not discussed. At this moment Suriname in linguistically very unsure of itself.

"Are we keeping Dutch as our official language? Dutch is no world language and in the Caribbean we are isolated. The prestige of Dutch as the old colonial language is declining. But the knowledge of Dutch is fairly spread and all our text books are in Dutch. Changing to English or Spanish would be a terrific effort and you have not only to change a language system, but a whole pattern of culture.

"If we started using Sranan as the medium of instruction in the first forms of the elementry school for those children who did not speak Dutch at home, the children would profit, they would certainly better understand what they are learning, and later on it would be easier to change from Dutch as the language of the higher forms to another official language.

"But the topic still seems too hot to discuss in Suriname and the Status of Sranan is not high enough (yet) and considered still too much as a group language of the Creoles."

It seems, therefore, that for political reasons related to sectarian interests that are basically non-linguistic (the Indians do speak Sranan and are not advocating any other language, even Dutch) the question of language policy is in abeyance in Suriname and no decisions are being made. English is easy for town Sranan speakers to learn and is on the way to becoming the only foreign language taught (Spanish was recently removed from the school curriculum) but the difficult question of an official language to replace Dutch is not being dealt with.

The only recommendation that can be made in this context is a political one - that the political parties pledge themselves once more to a bipartisan, non-sectarian approach to the question of language policy - perhaps appoint a prestigious national commission - so that the problemscan be faced, and that in the meantime they should permit Sranan to be the language of instruction at least in the lower grades of primary school.

VIII

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

There exists in the Caribbean an educational infrastructure, a pool of personnel and a level of consciousness sufficient for a successful programme aimed at the appreciable reduction of the language barriers at present hindering co-operation in development.

The development of foreign language-teaching must be regarded, however, not as a prerequisite, but as a concomitant of efforts in all fields, and must be informed by a philosophy which recognizes the interpenetration of all areas of development, the necessity for full mobilization and participation of populations and the constant stimulation of Caribbean attitudes.

Of the recommendations that follow, those that relate to the short term are those pertaining to language teaching for the purpose of current technical assistance projects, the upgrading of language-teaching institutions already in existence, and the rationalization of *ad hoc* services already in use, such as interpretership and translation services.

Those that relate to the medium term will be the ones pertaining to reforms in school systems and the creation of machinery for new functions outside the school systems, e.g. schools of interpretership, curriculum development, research materials production.

Long-term recommendations concern national language planning and policy.

The recommendations appear below in groups related to chapters of this study.

Recommendations

i. The languages to be emphasized in the sub-region's efforts to reduce linguistic barriers should be English for the Spanish speaking countries and Spanish for the English speaking ones. For these two groups, French should be next in importance, because of its role in Haiti and the French Caribbean Départements, and its status as a world language; Portuguese next because of the role of Brazil in the hemisphere.

The special problems of Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles with regard to Dutch are recognized in Chapters II and VII; English and Spanish respectively will certainly be the major foreign languages of those two countries, and might in time even become the first.

French will probably remain the second language of Haiti for some time to come, but bilingual education should be so designed as to provide openings to cultures other than francophone culture, and English and Spanish should be emphasized as foreign languages as early as possible.

The role of Russian as a foreign language in Cuba is recognized in Chapter II.

ii. This study should be extended to include Puerto Rico.

iii. Already existing programmes and institutions must be taken fully into account and integrated wherever possible into the scheme proposed in these recommendations. The foreign language institutes proposed here are to be based on existing OAS - sponsored language institutes: The OAS - Venezuelan initiatives mentioned in Chapter VI must certainly be incorporated into the regional pattern. Efforts should also be made to utilize in the overall operation of the scheme the work of francophone and United States teaching institutions.

iv. The public education systems of the sub-region, as the infrastructure of any system instituted for lowering linguistic barriers to co-operation, must be improved. In so far as foreign language instruction is concerned, this must mean:

(a) An emphasis on the inculcation of enthusiasm, the stimulation of motivation and removal of verbal inhibition as opposed to content and correctness.

(b) An emphasis on spoken language and on language for communication;

(c) As far as possible, adaptation of courses to the content of different programmes of study, even at secondary school level;

(d) The improvement of adult education programmes within a scheme of lifelong education, incorporating different points of entry, facilities for group study at the work place, etc.;

(e) A shift in emphasis in favour of technical and vocational education and the integration as far as possible, and particularly for adults, of study with productive work;

(f) Counselling services and aptitude tests in schools and other educational institutions, in a context of increased employment;

(g) Increased outlets for graduates of language programmes, particularly in the fields of bilingual secretaryship, translation, interpretership, employment with regional organizations. This in turn will improve student motivation at all levels; and

(h) Continuous testing carried out in schools and closely adapted to course objectives, as opposed to fixed formal examinations. The role of national and sub-regional examination authorities such as the Caribbean Examinations Council should be to monitor the quality of tests and testers (i.e. teachers), to certify the tests as acceptable for the issue of the various certificates, and to award the certificates.

v. The use of the electronic media in foreign language teaching must be the subject of careful study before effort is expended on programmes.

vi. One of the tasks of the Caribbean Language Institute (see recommendation xi below) should be to bring together the expertize from all relevant fields to advise on the use of the media in foreign language teaching, and to enlist the help and co-ordinate the activity of such bodies as the Caribbean Broadcasting Union.

vii. It seems that foreign language teaching through radio and television will in any case have to be either (a) complementary to teaching programmes, providing cultural information through documentary

programmes, or (b) integrated with a complex machinery of correspondence material, extension personnel, and study groups organized in workplaces or elsewhere.

viii. Foreign language institutes should be created in Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago. They should be based on the Jamaican Language Training Centre and the Trinidad and Tobago Language Institute. Their functions should be teaching, research and development for all levels of the education system, for the public and private sector and for technical co-operation purposes. This must include curriculum development and teacher training through seminars and workshops as well as advice to education authorities. Their operations should be combined as closely as possible with existing government training programmes and the work of the University of the West Indies.

This proposal is identical with proposals made by Dr. Clemens Hallman, OAS Education Consultant, in his reports on the two countries. In those reports 28/ detailed proposals are made regarding the administrative structure of the Institutes. The proposal now being made, however, modifies Dr. Hallman's in the following important respects:

(a) The two centres should emphasize the teaching of English, for reasons given in recommendations xiii and xiv below;

(b) Graduate schools of interpretership and translation should be incorporated into the Institutes; and

(c) The Trinidad and Tobago Institute, at least, should have its headquarters at the University of the West Indies Campus (Dr. Hallman in fact recommended this, but his recommendation was not followed) and certain of its programmes should be incorporated with those of the University.

The reasons for this are as follows:

(a) The Institute is not yet functioning and so is capable of considerable adaptation;

(b) The largest population of language students in the country is at the UWI;

(c) The proper place for a graduate school of interpretership and translation is at the University (though this does not preclude non-graduate or even non-university training programmes in interpretership -

e.g. for tourist guides, etc.) and an Institute of International Relations exists there;

(d) If the programmes of language teaching of the University were taken over by the Institute (that is, if its functions in this respect were merged with those of the Department of Language and Linguistics) there would be far greater scope for research in methodology because of the greater range of course objectives, class size, student age and background, etc. This would not preclude the operation of downtown and/or provincial teaching centres as well; and

(e) Motivation of University students and therefore level of achievement on entry could improve.

The Jamaican Language Centre is already fully functioning as far as teaching is concerned, and the administrative structure of language programmes at the Mona Campus of UWI is different (there is no Department of Language) so it might be more difficult to site the Jamaica Language Institute there. But if the effort were considered worthwhile by the Jamaica Government and the UWI, there is no reason why it should not be done.

In any case, research and developmental activities of the Institutes would have to be closely co-ordinated with the work of Universities in the sub-region.

ix. Language Institutes should be created in Cuba and the Dominican Republic, with similar functions to those in Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, similar relationships to existing local institutions, and with the emphasis, as far as regional objectives are concerned, on Spanish teaching.

x. The four Institutes should, among them, service the entire sub-region, and financing should be determined on this assumption.

xi. A Caribbean Language Institute should be created to co-ordinate the work of the national institutes and all other bodies in curriculum development, research, teacher training, testing, etc. It should advise, and maintain close relations with, other sub-regional bodies such as the Caribbean Examinations Council. It should be the link between National Language Institutes and other national bodies on the one hand

and external or international organizations, such as the OAS, on the other. It should be closely related to other sub-regional agencies in related fields and to the CDCC Secretariat.

xii. An Institute of Creole Studies should be created in Haiti, probably based on the present Centre de Linguistique Appliquée. This Institute should be the centre for research and planning in the field of Creole language study, bilingual education in Creolophone societies, and Afro-Caribbean culture. Some details of its possible functions are set out in Chapter VII.

xiii. Language-teaching programmes outside the school system should be under the control of a mechanism that is (a) flexible and capable of responding to specific needs at short notice (b) regionalized to reduce costs and increase co-operation as well as to ensure that language training is carried out as far as possible in the countries speaking the language to which the students are destined.

xiv. Language-teaching needs arising out of technical co-operation programmes should be provided as far as possible on a regional basis, and by the Language Institutes recommended in this study, since they will be best equipped to respond flexibly to varied needs, and since language training should wherever possible be carried out in countries where the languages concerned are spoken.

xv. The most important target group for programmes to reduce language barriers should be, in all countries, teachers of foreign language, and every effort should be made by countries of the sub-region, in collaboration with Regional and National Language Institutes, to improve and expand teacher training.

xvi. The formation of interpreters and translators should receive high priority because it should be achievable reasonably quickly and without excessive cost, especially in a context of co-operation, because it will reduce expensive dependence on outside sources and because of the effect of such career outlets on student motivation in the education system.

xvii. The problem of translation is part of the larger problem of access to, and diffusion of, information. A study of the relations between these problems at the regional level should be carried out as soon as possible. Such a study will probably be facilitated by the outcome of the UNESCO/CDCC meeting of Librarians and Documentalists to be held in Port of Spain from 29 November to 2 December 1977.

The language centres recommended in this study should work closely with a centre or centres for technical documentation and research.

xviii. Countries of the sub-region, in their efforts to set up translation services, should consider the utility of summaries and abstracts, as opposed to full translations, of certain material for certain specific uses, and attempt to provide such services as well.

xix. Each country of the sub-region should undertake a census as the first step in the creation of a pool of interpreters and translators. Guidelines for this investigation, and the examinations for certification of interpreters and translators, should be developed under the guidance of the Regional Institute of Foreign Languages.

xx. Each country of the sub-region should take steps to up-date and/or adopt legislation governing the legal requirements for translations and certification of translations in its judicial and fiscal systems (e.g. Customs and Excise) and the consular functions relevant to these. Co-ordination of legislation on this subject should be included in any exercise directed at the co-ordination of legislation on a sub-regional basis, and consular conventions should take account of the need for legalization of translations.

xxi. Language-teaching for purposes of technical co-operation should be regionalized on the following principles:

(a) two centres for English, Jamaica in the Northern Caribbean and Trinidad and Tobago in the Eastern Caribbean;

(b) two centres for Spanish, Cuba and the Dominican Republic. Thus it would be possible for trainees to receive their instruction in the country to which they are destined or one whose language is the same. Cuban technicians going to Guyana could be trained in Port of Spain; Jamaicans going to Cuba, in Cuba; Guyanese going to Cuba, in Cuba or the Dominican Republic.

The bodies responsible for such training would be the Language Institutes proposed in this study. They would also be responsible, of course, for programmes of foreign language-teaching for residents of the countries in

which they were sited, or even others with the same language - i.e. the Institute in Jamaica would teach Spanish to Jamaican or Bahamian Civil Servants, hotel personnel, etc.; the one in Trinidad, to Trinidadian, Guyanese, St. Lucian, etc.;

(c) One centre for French, in Martinique; and

(d) One centre in Haiti for Creole studies, including the teaching of creole for technical assistance purposes.

xxii. The development of the study of French on a Caribbean basis should be centred in Martinique, probably at the CUAG, and UNESCO should assist in developing the already existing research and teaching programmes carried out there, and in Guadeloupe, particularly for the benefit of the Creolophone eastern Caribbean, by the French Government, the Service de Coöperàcion Franco-Caraïbe of the Guadeloupe Prèfecture, and the CUAG.

xxiii. Programmes for the study of indigenous languages, and language planning involving these languages, should be carried out jointly by the countries concerned (Guyana and Suriname). They should receive technical and financial assistance for these programmes and the for the creation of the necessary institutions.

xxiv. The Government of Belize should consider a policy of bilingual education, that is, making Spanish the language of instruction in Spanish speaking areas, and should even consider the advisability of making Spanish an official language alongside English. The CDCC and other sub-regional bodies should provide as much technical and financial aid as possible for these purposes.

xxv. The Government of Suriname should take every possible step to achieve a bi-partisan, non-sectarian approach to language planning. A first step in this direction might be the appointment of a prestigious national commission.

xxvi. Sranan should in the meantime be the language of instruction in the lower grades of primary school. For these purposes Suriname should receive as much technical and financial assistance as possible.

xxvii. The Regional Language Institute should assist and co-ordinate the work of the Taaleninstituut in Aruba, and any smaller body in Suriname, Belize or other countries of the sub-region, in dealing with problems of language planning generally and bilingual education specifically.

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APPENDIX I

Languages of the Sub-Region

Country	Official Language	1st Language of Majority (% Speakers)	2nd Language (% Speakers)	Other Languages
Antigua	English	English Creole (100) 1/	-	-
Bahamas	English	English Creole (100)	-	-
Barbados	English	English Creole (100)		
Belize	English	English Creole (?)	Spanish (30)	Maya, Carib
Cuba	Spanish	Spanish		
Dominica	English	French Creole (100)	English Creole (60)	
Dominican Republic	Spanish	Spanish		
Grenada	English	English Creole (100)	French Creole (?)	
Guyana	English	English Creole (100)		Carib and other indigenous; Hindi 2/
Haiti	French	French Creole (100)		
Jamaica	English	English Creole(100)		
Montserrat	English	English Creole (100)		
Netherlands Antilles				
(Leewards)	Dutch	Papiamentu (100)		
(Windwards)	Dutch	English Creole (100)		

Country	Official Language	1st Language of Majority (% Speakers)	2nd Language (% Speakers)	Other Languages
St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla	English	English Creole (100)		
St. Lucia	English	French Creole (100)	English Creole (60)	
St. Vincent	English	English Creole (100)		
Suriname	Dutch	Sranan		Saramaccan & other creoles; Hindi, Javanese, Chinese.
Trinidad & Tobago	English	English Creole (100)		Hindi, French Creole, Spanish.

1/ There is dispute as to whether the English-lexicon vernaculars of many of the countries (other than Jamaica and Guyana) should be called Creoles, and in fact they have been described in the text of this report as "English". Nevertheless, there are educational problems associated with the bidialectal situation in all these countries.

2/ Dialects generally called "Hindi" in the Caribbean are for the most part not Hindi but other Indian dialects, most of them related to Hindi but one or two not even Indo-European (e.g. Tamil).

APPENDIX II

Foreign Language Courses in the Countries of the Sub-Region

Country	Primary	Compulsory secondary	Higher	Adult & Special	Primary	Optional secondary	Higher	ENROLMENT TOTAL Primary	Secondary	Higher	Adult & Special	Primary	OPTIONAL LANGUAGES Secondary	Higher
Antigua	-	Fr or Sp to Gr 9	-	-	-	Fr /Sp from Gr 9	-	-	5084	-	-	-	Not known	-
Bahamas	-	Fr to Gr 9 (Private) In Pub.Schs. Varies.	-	Sp	-	-	-	-	15644	-	75	-	-	-
Barbados	-	-	-	Fr/Sp	-	Fr/Sp	-	-	-	52/39	100/100	-	536/[illegible] 1/	-
Belize	-	-	-	Sp	-	Sp	-	-	-	-	637	-	5000 2/	-
Cuba	Eng/RUSS	ENG/RUSS	ENG/RUSS Fr/Ger	ENG/RUSS Others	-	ENG/RUSS	ENG/RUSS Fr/Ger	585937	781000	500 2/		-	Not known	Not Known
Dom.Rep.	-	ENG or Fr	ENG/Fr	ENG/Fr	-	-	ENG/Fr	-	320500 (90% ENG)	40	4300/ 2500	-	-	43000
Grenada	-	Sp	-	-	-	Fr	-	-	4290	-	-	-	933	-
Guyana	-	Sp(3 yrs)	Sp/Fr/ Port	Sp/Fr/ Port	-	Fr	Sp/Fr/ Port	-	57785	134/80/ 18	228/80/ 15	-	6420	-
Haiti	-	ENG	ENG/Sp	ENG/Sp	-	Sp	-	-	27000 3/	Not known	Not known (large No. of private Instits)	-	Not known	-
Jamaica	Sp	-	Sp/Fr/ Ger	Sp/Fr/ Ger	-	Sp/Fr/ Ger	-	-	-	150/ 100	130/600/ Not known	-	30140/ 2092/56 3/	-

Country	COMPULSORY			OPTIONAL				ENROLMENT						
								TOTAL				OPTIONAL LANGUAGES		
	Primary	Secondary	Higher	Adult & Special	Primary	Secondary	Higher	Primary	Secondary	Higher	Adult & Special	Primary	Secondary	Higher
Neth.Anti.	-	ENG/Ger	ENG	-	ENG/Ger (Grades 5 + 6)	Sp/Fr	-	-	22055	358	-	Not known	Not known	-
St.Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla	-	-	-	-	-	Fr/Sp	-	-	-	-	-	-	Not known	-
St. Lucia	-	-	Fr/Sp	Fr	-	Fr/Sp	-	-	-	98/0	34	-	Not known	-
St. Vincent	-	Sp (Yrs 1-3)	-	Sp	-	Fr (Yrs 4-6)	-	-	Not known	-	12	-	Not known	-
Suriname	-	ENG	ENG/Sp	ENG/Sp Port/Fr	-	Sp/Fr/Ger	-	-	26000	144/ 114	87/100/ 16/9	-	Not known	-
Trinidad & Tobago	-	Sp	Sp/Fr	Sp/Fr	-	Fr	Sp/Fr	-	61600	100/ 35	455/446	-	9000	7/3

1/ These figures represent the number of candidates for the GCE "O" and "A" level examinations in June 1975. The total number of students studying the languages would be somewhat higher.

2/ Estimate.

3/ Compiled from 1975-1976 Education Statistics.

4/ Includes post-primary forms of primary schools.

5/ 1971 Statistics.

Source: The category "Compulsory" in relation to higher education refers to language courses in programmes predominantly oriented toward language study. The category "optional" in relation to higher education refers to language courses in programmes predominantly oriented toward language study, whether such courses are in fact optional or compulsory.

APPENDIX III

Patterns of Bilateral Co-operation across Language Boundaries in the Caribbean

Country	CUBA	DOM. REP.	SURINAME	MARTINIQUE GUADELOUPE	VENEZUELA	MEXICO
Antigua				Student exchange (Guadeloupe) Teacher training in Guadeloupe.		
Barbados				Student exchange (Martinique) organized by Alliance Française.		
Dominica				Teacher training advisers from Guadeloupe to Dominica.		
Grenada				Sporadic student exchange. Teacher training in Guadeloupe.	Tech. agreement in prospect. Teacher exchange. Venezuelan students to private secretarial schools in Grenada.	
Guyana	1975 Economic, Scientific, Technical Educational & Cultural Agreement. 80 Guyanese yearly to Cuba for training in Banking, Aviation Medicine, Agriculture, etc. Cuban Technicians on attachments in Guyana. Cuban Physicians in Guyana. Mixed Commission to implement Agreement. Exchange of language teachers.		Sport. Some secondary level visits. University of Guyana and College of Education. Exchange teachers of Dutch to University of Guyana.	Teacher training in Guadeloupe.	3-5 graduates a year to Simon Bolivar University. (Language, Literature & Culture).	

COUNTRY	CUBA	DOM. REP.	SURINAME	MARTINIQUE GUADELOUPE	VENEZUELA	MEXICO
Haiti		Migrant sugar workers to Dom. Rep.			Tech. Agreement - Petroleum Research.	
Jamaica	Tech. Agreement Medicine, Agriculture, Building.	UWI (Mona) Students to Dom. Rep.		UWI (Mona) Students to CUAG.	Cultural Agreement 1975: Jamaicans to Venezuela to study Agriculture, etc. Venezuelans to Jamaica (Higher education).	Cultural Agreement. Artists groups. Mexican students to C.A.S.T. 22 Mexican teachers to Jamaica for workshop.
Netherlands Antilles					Cultural Agreement: Spanish teaching co-operation. Secondary students to Venezuela.	
St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla				Student exchange (Guadeloupe) Teacher training (Guadeloupe).	Student exchange.	
St. Lucia				Teacher training (Guadeloupe & Martinique)	Venezuelan industry (packing factory) in St. Lucia. Cultural visits.	
St. Vincent				Teacher training (Guadeloupe).		
Suriname					Agreement pending.	
Trinidad & Tobago				Teacher training (Guadeloupe) Alliance Francaise Student exchange.	UWI St. Augustine visit pending. Visits by Cultural Groups.	

93 100

APPENDIX IV

Translation and Interpretership

Country	DEMAND (PAGES per year.)				IDENTIFIED CAPACITY (No. of People)				DEMAND (MAN-DAYS per year.)				IDENTIFIED CAPACITY (No. of People)				SAMPLE (No. of ORGANIZATIONS)
	ENG	Sp	Fr	Other	ENG	Sp	Fr	Other	ENG	Sp	Fr	OTHER	ENG	SP	Fr	OTHER	
PRIVATE SECTOR																	
Guyana		320	740	118 (Ger) 2 (Dutch) 2 (RUSS)	9	12		2 (Ger) 1 (Dutch)	126	6	1 (Dutch)		3	3	1 (Ger) 1 (Dutch)		35
PUBLIC SECTOR																	
Belize	1164		20		12				13				7				6
Dom.Rep.	6240		330		13		1		10				1				3

Source: The only other country from which a significant number of replies was received was Suriname. The data for this country, is, however, not classified, since organizations tended to say that "all the correspondence and documentation received is in English" or that "we use 300 man-days per year of interpretership services but a breakdown by language is impossible".

It emerged, however, from a sample of seven organizations that almost all translation and interpretership was done by the organizations' own employees.

The only other country from which replies were received to the questionnaire on the public sector was Cuba. Here, however, the volume was so large that it could not be expressed in the units used in the questionnaire. The principal respondent was the Ministry of Foreign Trade, which receives, translates and summarizes 708 periodicals in foreign languages, broken down as follows: English 421; French 180; German 11; Russian 7 and other (unspecified) 77.

Translation services available are described in Chapter V.

APPENDIX V

Questionnaire on Education Systems

UNESCO Survey of Foreign-Language Teaching Policy Practice and Methodology in the Caribbean

1 What foreign languages are taught in your public education system (government and private)?

Primary -

Secondary -

Higher -

2. Which languages are compulsory (c) and for how long? Which are optional (o)?

Primary -

Secondary -

Higher -

3. Numbers enrolled at each level:

Primary -

Secondary -

Higher -

4. What foreign languages are taught in special or other institutions?

a) Names of Institutions:

b) Numbers enrolled:

c) Age groups of students:

d) Levels of instruction:

e) Lengths of courses:

f) Target groups:
(e.g. students, businessmen, civil servants)

g) teaching methods:
(traditional, audio-visual, audio-lingual, etc.)

h) Evaluation methods:
(aptitude, diagnostic, achievement tests, etc.)

i) Rate of success:

5. What diplomas or other certification in foreign languages are given besides the general certificates of the school system?

6. What formal training is given to foreign language teachers (including teachers of national language to foreigners):

   Primary -

   Secondary -

   Higher -

7. What % of teachers possess this training?

   Primary -

   Secondary -

   Higher -

8. Are any language teaching materials produced in your country? If so, at what levels?

   Primary -

   Secondary -

   Higher -

   Special Target Groups -

9. Do any institutions possess language laboratories? If so, which?

10. Are the Mass Media used in any way for foreign language instruction?

11. What is the official government policy on instruction in foreign languages?

    in: Primary -

    Secondary -

    Higher -

    Other -

    and with regard to:

    a) target groups -

    b) teacher training -

    c) teaching methods -

    d) skills aimed at:
    (speaking, reading, etc.)

12. What is the official government policy on teaching the national language to foreigners?

Institutions:

Target Groups:

Level of instruction:

Skills aimed at:
(speaking, reading, etc.)

13. For international conferences held in your country, where are interpreting services obtained?

14. What arrangements are made for translation of foreign language documents for use by government agencies or business firms?

15. What foreign language instruction is given to officers in the diplomatic, military or other overseas services of your country?

16. What surveys, official or other, have been done on the teaching and/or use of foreign languages in your country?

17. Has your government enunciated an official policy in support of increased contact with the other linguistic units of the Caribbean?

Which units?

For what purposes?

Culture -
Trade -
Tourism -
Agriculture -
Health -
Marine Affairs -
Defence -
Other -

18. Are there any courses in general or applied linguistics taught at University or any other level?

19. Is there any continuing research in linguistics or language problems, and if so what?

20. What journals devoted to linguistics, language teaching or language problems are published or commonly used in your country?

21. Are there any professional associations of language teachers or researchers?

22. Are there any teacher or student exchange programme between your country and any countries speaking another language?

23. If so, for what purposes:

Language Learning -

Other -

24. With what Countries?

25. For what kinds of jobs now available is a foreign language recognized as an advantage?

26. Do you envisage an increase in jobs of this kind?

27. What is the general attitude of the population of your country toward countries where foreign languages are spoken?

Interest -

Indifference -

Hostility -

(Indicate which languages)

28. Any other comments

APPENDIX VI

Questionnaire on Interpretership and Translation Services UNESCO/ECLA Survey of Language Facilities in the Caribbean

Questionnaire

Name of Organization:

1. Approximately how many pages per year of documents in foreign languages does your organization need to read for use in its work?

2. Give a breakdown of this amount by languages.

3. Where are translation services now obtained by your organization? (Give as much detail as possible)?

4. Approximately how many man-days per year of interpretership services are needed by your organization?

5. Give a breakdown by languages

6. Where are interpretership services obtained now?

7. Give a breakdown as between local and foreign sources.

8. Give a breakdown of services needed by your organization on the basis of technical complexity of material to be interpreted or translated and for each language:

8. Translation (pages per year)

Language	Highly Technical	Moderately Technical	Simple
Spanish French Other (specify)			

Interpretership (man-days per year)

Language	Highly Technical	Moderately Technical	Simple
Spanish			
French			
Other (Specify)			

9. How many people in your organization are capable of doing translation and interpretership?

Language	Translation	Interpretership
Spanish		
French		
Other (Specify) English		

APPENDIX/ APPENDICE/APENDICE VII

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